Y A V O



يسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

دراسات على بكتيريا Staphylococcus aureus المعزولة من بعض العاملين في مجال تداول الأطعمة وقابليتها لإنتاج السموم المعوية في بعض الأكلات السعودية المطبوخة

للطالب/انس بن سراج عبد الرحمن دبلول بكالوريوس علوم تطبيقية (ميكروبيولوجيا) - جامعة ام القرى ١٤١٥

رسالة مقدمة للحصول على درجة الملجستير في ميكروبيولوجيا الأغذية و التسممات الغذائية

المشرفون

استاذ استاذ مساعد

دكتور/ عصمت توفيق الأشوح دكتور/ علاء أسعد سعيد محضر

٢ ٢ ٤ ١ هــ/ ١ ٠ ٠ ٢م

وزارة انتعلبم انعماني جامعة أد انفسسر ى كلبة انعلود انتطبيقية

غوذج رقم (٨) إجازة أطروحة علمية في صيغتها النهائية بعد إجراء التعديلات

| با نے الزمیاء۔ میکرود وجیا | لول. كليا: العلوم التطبية | الاس درواي الرنسي بن سواح عبدارجن وي |
|---|----------------------------------|--|
| ساالأغذيه والتسمات المغداش | ن غسس : مياروبول و. | النفروحا مندمة لنبل دوحة : الطاجميس تكور |
| والعاملين في عال مداول والأطعيد وما كمدته | S.Q.U. كالمعزولة مدنيضًا | عوان الغزوحة الدولسيات على مكشوما على) |
| المطبوح يع | بعص الاكلات السعوديه | عوال القورسة ((والمسيان على مكشور ما يحله) الانتاج السرى المعنول عند |

الحمد لله رب العالمين والصلاة والسلام على أشرف الأنبياء والمرسلين وعلى آله وصحبه أجمعين وبعد :

لبناءً على توصية اللجنة المكونة لمنافشة الأطورحة المذكورة أعلاه والتي تحت منافشــتها بشاريخ، أنه ا^{بن} اهــ بقبولها بعــد إجــراء التعديــلات المطلوبة، وحـيث قد تم عمل اللازم ؛ فإن اللجنة توصي بإجازتها في صيغتها النهائية المرفقة للدرجة العلميـة المذكورة أعلاه ...

والله المولق ...

أعضاء اللجنة

المنافن المان الداعلي المنافن الداعلي المنافن المان الحارجي المنافن الحارجي المنافن الحارجي المنافن الحارجي المنافث الاسم عرف أن مراف الاسم عرف أن مراف الاسم المرف المناف المناف

رنس نسم الرّحداء الاسم: حاراجمد محديثهان كنساره الونع: المساحد محديثهان كنساره

يوضع هذا النموذج أهام الصفحة القابلة لصفحة عنوان الأطروحة في كل نسخة من الرسالة .

va Vo

Studies on Isolates of Staphylococcus aureus From Food Handlers and Their Ability to Produce Enterotoxins in Some Saudi Cooked Food.

By

Anas Serag Abdulrahman Dablool

B. Sc. (1995). Applied Microbiology

Umm Al-Qura University

THESIS

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Science

In

Food Microbiology and Poisoning

Advisors

Dr. Esmat T. EL-Ashwah Dr. Alaa A. Mihdhir

Professor Assistant Professor

Faculty of Applied Sciences Umm Al-Qura University

1422AH-2001AD

Dedication

To my mother Fozeyh for here patience, support, invocation and devotions
To my Father's Serag who made it all possible even after his death
To Rosa and my flowers Alaa, Serag, Loui and Hazm for their love
To my brother and sisters for their invocation

Acknowledgement

Praise be to Allah and Peace be upon prophet Mohammad the Master of the Apostles, his family and companions. First of all, I will thank Allah for every thing and for the elevated for the success of this beneficial project, and ask him to bountifully reward all those who have undertaken it or participated in it.

The author wishes to express his profound gratitude to Dr. Esmat.T. El-Ashwah, Professor of food processing microbiology, Microbiology Division, Faculty of Applied Sciences, Umm AL-Qura University, for suggesting the problem, valuable guidance, encouragement and keen supervision during the course of this investigation. My deep appreciation and gratitude are extended to Dr. Alaa.A Mihdhir, at the same department for sincere guidance, truly help, and continuous encouragement that brought this study to a successful culmination. Also I wish to express my sincere thanks to the staff of Biology Department.

I am very grateful to Dr. A .M Turkostany epidemiologist, for sincere support and encouragement. Also I would like to thank Dr. Y AL-Mazroay, Dr. M. Jefry, Dr. M.AL- Zahrani, Dr. K. Algely and Mr. A Herash from Ministry of Health. Also my appreciations are extended to S. Mubark, Dr. S. Saban, and my colleagues at Makkah Public Health laboratory for sincere assistance.

| Table of co | <u>ontents</u> | | Page No. |
|----------------|----------------|--------------------------------------|----------|
| Abstract | | | VI |
| List of table | <u>s</u> | | VII |
| List of illust | rations | | VIII |
| Abbreviatio | <u>n</u> | ••••• | IX |
| | | | |
| Introduction | | | 1 |
| | | on | |
| Object of in | vestigatie | <u>LITERATURE REVIEW</u> | |
| 1.1 Food | lhama d | liseases. | 2 |
| | | | |
| 1.1.1 | Definition | on | 3 |
| 1.1.2 | Estimati | on of food borne diseases | 4 |
| 1.1.3 | Bacteria | l food poisoning | 5 |
| 1.1.4 | Factors | contributing to Bacterial food poiso | ning 6 |
| 1.1.5 | Major to | oxin-producing bacteria | 7 |
| | | | |
| 1.2 Staph | iylococci | us | 10 |
| 1.2.1 | Historic | al Introduction | 10 |
| 1.2.2 | Classific | cation | 12 |
| 1.2.3 | Morpho | logy and Characteristics | 12 |
| | 1.2.3.1 | Cell morphology and physiology | 12 |
| | 1.2.3.2 | Cultures | |
| | 1.2.3.3 | | |
| 124 | | ococcal Diseases | |

| 1.3 | Stap | hylococcal food intoxication15 |
|------------|--------|---|
| | 1.4.1 | Introduction15 |
| | 1.4.1 | Symptoms16 |
| | 1.4.2 | Enterotoxigenicity of staphylococci16 |
| | 1.4.3 | Food involved and source of contamination17 |
| | 1.4.4 | Investigations18 |
| 1.4 | Cha | racteristics Leading to S. aureus Identification.19 |
| | 1.4.1 | Introduction19 |
| | 1.4.2 | The Catalase |
| | 1.4.3 | The Coagulase20 |
| | 1.4.4 | Deoxyribonuclease (DNase)24 |
| | 1.4.5 | Hemolysins25 |
| | 1.4.6 | Exotoxins27 |
| | 1.4.7 | Oxidase28 |
| * · | 1.4.8 | Gram staining |
| | 1.4.9 | Motility28 |
| | 1.4.10 | Susceptibility to antibiotics |
| 1.5 | Stap | hylococcal enterotoxins31 |
| | 1.5.1 | Definition31 |
| | 1.5.2 | Historical Introduction31 |
| | 1.5.3 | Composition of enterotoxins32 |
| | 1.5.4 | Properties of enterotoxins34 |
| | 1.5.5 | Types of enterotoxins |

| | 1.5.6 | Detection methods39 | | 39 |
|------|--------|---------------------|--|-------|
| | | 1.5.6.1 | Introduction | 39 |
| | | 1.5.6.2 | Biological methods | 39 |
| | | 1.5.6.3 | Immunological Techniques | 40 |
| | | 1.5.6.4 | Molecular Methods | 43 |
| 1.6 | Sani | tation in | food handling | 44 |
| | 1.6.1 | Food har | ndlers | 44 |
| | 1.6.2 | Food har | ndler as sources of S. aureus | 45 |
| | 1.6.3 | Rice dish | nes | 46 |
| | | 1.6.3.1 | Distribution systems | 48 |
| | | 1.6.3.2 | Left-over and it's relation to incidence | es49 |
| | | <u>MA</u> | ATERIALS AND METHODS | |
| 2.1S | Specim | ens, sam | pling, media, and culture condition | ons51 |
| | 2.1.1 | Food har | ndlers specimens | 51 |
| | 2.1.2 | Preparati | ion of food | 51 |
| | | 2.1.2.1 | Bohkary Rice | 51 |
| | | 2.1.2.2 | Mandy Rice | 52 |
| | 2.1.3 | Sampling | g of Mandy and Bokhary rice | 54 |
| | 2.1.4 | Media | | 54 |
| | 2.1.5 | Reagents | S | 59 |
| | 2.1.6 | Culture p | ourification and maintenance | 63 |

| 2.2Morpho | ological studies64 |
|-------------|--|
| 2.2.1 | Morphological and pigmentation studies of colonies64 |
| 2.2.2 | Haemolysis64 |
| 2.2.3 | Gram staining65 |
| 2.2.4 | Motility65 |
| 2.3Biocher | mical Studies65 |
| 2.3.1 | Catalase test65 |
| 2.3.2 | Coagulase test66 |
| 2.3.3 | Oxidase test67 |
| 2.3.4 | DNase test68 |
| 2.4Sensitiv | vity test68 |
| 2.5Bacteri | al load of cooked rice during holding time70 |
| 2.6Growth | curves determination70 |
| 2.7Enterot | oxins studies71 |
| 2.7.1 | Enterotoxin production in culture medium71 |
| 2.7.2 | Enterotoxin production in foods71 |
| 2.7.3 | Food samples preparation for RPLA72 |
| 2.7.4 | RPLA test in liquid culture73 |

Results and Discussion

| 3.1 Food l | handlers specimens | 76 |
|------------|--|-----|
| 3.1.1 | Collected specimens | 76 |
| 3.1.2 | Isolation and characterization of S. aureus | 79 |
| 3.1.3 | Enterotoxigenicity of the isolates | 83 |
| 3.1.4 | Sensitivity test | 91 |
| 3.2 Collec | etion of Mandy rice samples | 94 |
| 3.2.1 | Determination of variability in cooked rice temp | 96 |
| 3.2.2 | Bacterial total count | 96 |
| 3.2.3 | pH of the rice samples | 99 |
| 3.3 S. aur | eus enterotoxigenicity studies on rice | 99 |
| 3.3.1 | The selected culatures. | 99 |
| 3.3.2 | Growth curves in S. aureus in synthetic medium | 99 |
| 3.3.3 | Growth curve of S. aureus in rice dishes | 101 |
| 3.3.4 | Minimum detectable amount of SEs in rice | |
| | by RPLA | 103 |
| 3.3.5 | The effect of rice temperatures on | |
| | Staphylococcal enterotoxins production | 105 |
| | 3.3.5.1 Cooked rice | 105 |
| | 3.3.5.2 Cooked then sterilized rice | 106 |
| Summary | and Conclusions | 110 |
| Reference | S | |
| | | |

Abstract

The present investigation is concerned with isolation, purification, and identification of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolated from some food handlers whom applied to work in hospital-located kitchens in Makkah during high seasons of Hajj. Out of 129 *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates from 1516 clinical specimens from food handlers of different nationalities; 35% produced enterotoxins A, B, C and D singly or in pairs, when such enterotoxins were evaluated by Reversed Passive Latex Agglutination test (RPLA).

Enterotoxins C and A, elaborated by 15.5% and 12.4%, isolates respectively, which showed the highest percentage. They were mostly isolated from nasal swabs than throat swabs. All isolates were resistant to Penicillin G. On the other hand, they were sensitive to Clindamycin, Oxacillin and Gentamicin when tested by Kirby-Bauer method.

So, two isolates each forming either SEA or SEC were chosen, and were subjected to further studies, i.e., growth curve in selected medium and in cooked rice. The effect of the holding temperature of rice on the production of SEA and SEC was evaluated.

Many conclusions could be drawn but the most important one is the necessity to reactivate the role of the health certification, so it should cover the training and educational part beside the medical examinations.

Abbreviation

a w : Water activity

cAMP : Cyclic Adenosine Monophosophate

CDC : Center for Disease Control, Atlanta USA

CIOMS: The Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences

CPE: C. perfringens Enterotoxin

D : Dalton

DNase: Deoxyribonuclease ED₅₀: The 50 % Emetic dose

ELISA: Enzyme-Linked Immuno-Sorbent Assay US FDA: US Federal and Drug Administration

I¹²⁵ : Radioactive Iodine

IEA : Immunoenzymatic Assay
Mab : Monoclonal antibody

MIC: Minimal Inhibitory Concentration
MLC: Minimal Lethal Concentration
MRSA: Methicillin-Resistant S. aureus.
MSSA: Methicillin-Susceptible S. aureus.

PCR : Polymerase Chain Reaction

PAGE: Poly Acrylamide Gel Electrophoresis

PCR : Polymerase Chain Reaction

PIGE: Pulsed-Inversion Gel Electrophoresis of total DNA

PHA: Passive Hemagglutination Assay
PFGE: Pulsed-Field Gel Electrophoresis

RIA : Radio-Immuno -assay test

RPHA: Reversed Passive Hemagglutination Assay
RPLA: Reversed Passive Latex Agglutination test

SaG : An enzyme produced by the S. aureus endo-acetylglucosaminidase

SEA : Staphylococcal EnterotoxinA
SEB : Staphylococcal EnterotoxinB
SEC : Staphylococcal EnterotoxinC
SED : Staphylococcal EnterotoxinD
SEE : Staphylococcal EnterotoxinE
SEH : Staphylococcal EnterotoxinH
SEG : Staphylococcal EnterotoxinG
SEI : Staphylococcal EnterotoxinG

SEI : Staphylococcal EnterotoxinI
SEs : Staphylococcal Enterotoxins
SRD : Single Radial immunodiffusion

SSSS : Staphylococcal Scalded Skin Syndrome

TSS: Toxic Shock Syndrome

TC: Total count

The Thermonuclease TSST-1 Enterotoxin F

WHO: World Health organization

List of Tables

| No. | Title | Page |
|-----|---|------|
| 1 | Group 17 gram-positive cocci according to Bergey's Manual | 11 |
| 2 | Some of the coagulase test commercial kits | 21 |
| 3 | The famous rice dishes in Saudi Arabia | 50 |
| 4 | Composition of Amie's medium | 55 |
| 5 | Composition of Plate Count agar medium | 57 |
| 6 | Composition of blood agar base No.2 | 57 |
| 7 | Composition of Mannitol Salt Agar medium | 57 |
| 8 | Composition of Baird- Parker medium | 58 |
| 9 | Composition of DNase medium | 58 |
| 10 | Composition of Mueller Hinton Agar | 58 |
| 11 | Composition of Brain Heart Infusion broth (BHI) | 60 |
| 12 | Composition of Tryptone Soy Broth (TSB) | 60 |
| 13 | Composition of Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) | 61 |
| 14 | Composition of 1% Peptone Water | 61 |
| 15 | Composition of REMEL's rabbit plasma | 61 |
| 16 | The limits of inhibition zones for Gram (+) Bacteria | 69 |
| 17 | Distribution of examined foodhandlers in Makkah | 77 |
| 18 | Number of strains producing SEs according to source | 84 |
| 19 | Carriers food handlers | 88 |
| 20 | S. aureus isolates classified according to sensitivity test | 92 |
| 21 | Average temperatures of the rice samples in pots | 95 |
| 22 | The Bacterial total count of the rice samples | 98 |
| 23 | The minimum detectable SEs in rice by RPLA | 104 |

List of illustrations

| No. | Title | Page |
|-----|--|------|
| 1 | A ribbon diagram of the three-dimensional of SEB | 33 |
| 2 | Spreading of staphylococci from human reservoir to food | 47 |
| 3 | The Mandy's oven in a hole in the ground | 53 |
| 4 | Agglutination patterns of the RPLA test | 75 |
| 5 | Agglutination patterns of the RPLA test result | 75 |
| 6 | Distribution Distribution of Food handlers examined according to their | 77 |
| | nationalities and sex | |
| 7 | Chart recorder of incubator temperature during 7days | 80 |
| 8 | Typical colonies of S. aureus on Blood agar plates | 81 |
| 9 | S.aureus on Mannitol Salt agar a: +ve and b: -ve reaction | 81 |
| 10 | Typical colonies of S.aureus on modified Baird Parker | 81 |
| 11 | Coagulase test F: +ve reaction, G: -ve reaction | 81 |
| 12 | DNase Test positive and negative results, respectively | |
| 13 | Positive reaction of catalase test | |
| 14 | Oxidase test a: positive and b: negative reaction | |
| 15 | Enterotoxigenicity of S. aureus isolates according to the source of | |
| | specimens | |
| 16 | Carriers food handler | 89 |
| 17 | Example of sensitivity test for S. aureus using various antibiotic | 93 |
| 18 | Growth curves for two isolates of S. aureus, which produce SEA and | 100 |
| | SEC in BHI | |
| 19 | Growth curve for S. aureus in Mandy rice | 102 |
| 20 | Growth curve for S. aureus in Bokhary rice | 102 |
| 21 | Effect of different temperatures on SEA production in Bokhary and | 108 |
| | Mandy Rice | |
| 22 | Effect of different temperatures on SEC production in Bokhary and | 109 |
| | Mandy Rice | |

Introduction

Many inhabitants in Saudi Arabia nowadays depend on prepared cooked foods presented in many restaurants and pantries especially in big cities as Holy Makkah, Madina, and Jeddah, all year around. Of special importance is during Hajj, and Omra seasons.

Hajj is Pilgrimage season when more than 2 million people (in specific time throughout the year) gather in Makkah and Holy areas of Arafat, Mena, and Mozdalifa to perform religious rituals of worship. On the other hand, Omra seasons throughout the year focused mainly on Makkah where visitors worship in the Holy Mosque, in addition to large number of visitors to Madina.

In ordinary times, food handlers are subjected to medical examination before assignment to work in food stations. However, during high seasons of work, i.e., Hajj and Omra, those establishments employ temporary workers even from other countries; mostly lacking proper training in food handling operations, mass feeding, and sanitary practices. This situation may encourage contamination with microorganisms both causing food spoilage and food intoxication. Of most widespread intoxication, which depends largely on sanitary practices is staphylococcal food poisoning.

Object of Investigation

The present investigation is concerned with isolation, purification, and identification of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates from some food handlers who applied to work in Makkah during high seasons. Swabs will be obtained directly from throat, nose, nails, wounds, and stool samples. The isolates will be characterize and tested for the ability to produce enterotoxins in culture media, and in some Saudi traditional cooked foods such as Mandy and Bokhary rice. Mandy and Bokhary rice dishes are very popular, staple food, and are served in public kitchens spreading everywhere in the Kingdom.

Review of Literature

1.1 Food borne diseases

ICD-9005; ICD-10A05

1.1.1 Definition

Foodborne Diseases are defined as conditions of distress following the ingestion of contaminated food and or drink (Ayres *et al.*, 1980). As they are widespread and cause public health problems and concern, the World Health organization WHO's International Committee for Classification of Diseases in its 9th Revision identified Foodborne intoxications and Foodborne infection, as terms applied to illnesses acquired by consumption of contaminated food (Benenson and chin, 1995).

On the other hand, to avoid confusion based on nosology in different languages, each disease is identified by numbers and English names, which were recommended by the Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences (CIOMS), and the WHO in the International Nomenclature of Diseases. Food borne diseases designated as "ICD-9005; ICD-10A05". However, the simplest definition for food borne diseases is diseases transmitted by foods (WHO, 2000a).

Food borne diseases are frequently classified on the basis of the type of agent that is responsible for illnesses such as bacterial, viral, parasitic, fungal, poisonous plants, toxic animals, and poisonous chemicals. Bryan (1976) classified food borne diseases into food poisonings and food infections. In 1984, Frazier and Westhoff reported that food poisonings could be the result of either chemical poisoning or the ingestion of a toxicant (intoxication). The later could be caused by certain plants or animal tissues, and metabolic products (toxins) formed and or excreted by microorganisms, i.e., bacteria, fungi, algae, during their growth and multiplication in food (Heritage *et al.*, 1999).

The entrance of pathogenic microorganisms into the body and the reaction of body tissues to their presence or to the toxins they generate within the body cause food infections (Bryan, 1976).

1.1.2 Estimation of Food borne Diseases

There are more than 200 well-known food borne diseases reported by Mead *et al.*, (1999). The global incidence of foodborne diseases is difficult to estimate, because of many reasons including:

- 1. The absence of good surveillance systems in most of the Third World countries.
- 2. Lack of reliable information on the magnitude of the problem.
- 3. Milder cases are often not detected or reported.
- 4. Some foodborne diseases are caused by pathogens that have not yet been identified (WHO, 1997a). But it has been reported that in 1998 alone 2.2 million people died from diarrheal diseases (Mead *et al.*, 1999). Most of these cases can be attributed to contamination of food and drinking water. However, it is estimated that the reported cases represent less than 10%, of the real incidence (Motarjemi and Kaferstein, 1997).

1.1.3 Bacterial food poisoning

Of all the causes of food poisoning, the most common is bacterial food poisoning (Heritage *et al.*, 1999). Two groups of food poisoning bacteria are recognized. The first is known as toxin-producing bacteria, and the second as infecting bacteria (Prescott *et al.*, 1990).

The toxin-producing bacteria include any bacteria that can produce toxins. They are divided into two sub-groups, the first, includes the bacteria that usually liberate the toxin in the food prior to ingestion, i.e., *S. aureus* and *Clostridium botulinum*. On the contrary, the second sub-group, produce toxin after being ingested by the victim, i.e., *Vibrio cholerae* and *C. perfringens* (Lederberg, 2000). The produced toxin is responsible for eliciting the clinical manifestation of the disease. It may not be necessary to ingest viable bacteria from the first group to suffer from an intoxication type (Heritage *et al.*, 1999).

Infecting food bacteria are those primarily invade the intestinal epithelial cells after entering the body through ingestion of contaminated foods, i.e., *Salmonella spp.* and *Campylobacter spp.* (Frazier and Westhoff, 1984).

WHO estimated that more than 5.2 million food illnesses in U.S.A are due to bacteria each year, which represent 13% of the total cases of the food borne diseases that are caused by known pathogens (Mead *et al.*, 1999).

1.1.3.1 Factors contributing to Bacterial food poisoning

According to the WHO's issue "Statistics Quarterly on Outbreak" (WHO, 1997b); in spite of improvements in methods of food preparation, and education of those responsible for the provision of food, which is expected to reduce the incidence of food poisoning. It can be seen that rather than narrow; food borne illnesses actually appears to be increasing (WHO, 2000b).

To accomplish this; it is essential to know all about the science of food hygiene, which aims to produce food that is safe to the consumer and of good keeping quality. It covers a very wide field, and includes: the rearing, feeding, marketing, and the sanitation procedures designed to prevent bacteria of human origin from reaching the foodstuff (Jaad, 1997). The largest proportion of the outbreak's incidents occurred from food prepared in restaurants, hotels, clubs, hospitals, schools, etc. (Hobbs and Roberts, 1990).

Various characteristics of the food itself may allow or inhibit bacterial multiplication. These include factors such as pH, water activity (a_w), and level of organisms competing with or inhibiting the growth of potential pathogens (Ayres *et al.*, 1980). On the other hand, certain characteristics of food poisoning bacteria contribute to the incidents, i.e., production of heat-resistant spores, ability to grow at relatively high or low temperature, and tolerance of high salt or sugar levels (Frazier and Westhoff, 1984).

However, for all types of food poisoning; the factors, which are recorded as most commonly contributing to outbreak as reported by Hobbs and Roberts, (1990) include:

- 1) The use of contaminated processed food.
- Preparation of food more than half a day in advance of needs.
- 3) Undercooking and raw food consumption.
- 4) Storage at ambient temperature or improper warm holding.
- 5) Inadequate cooling and inadequate reheating.
- 6) Cross-contamination from raw to cooked food.
- 7) Use of the left over food.

1.1.3.2 Major toxin-producing bacteria

• Bacillus cereus.

ICD-9 5005.8;ICD-10 A05.4

B. cereus is a Gram-positive, spore-forming aerobe that is present in soil, vegetation, water, and dust (Jawetz et al., 1989). Two toxins are responsible for clinical illnesses: the first is an emetic heat-stable toxin that causes vomiting, which resembles staphylococcal food poisoning (a short incubation period emetic syndrome). Boiled rice stored at room temperature has often been implicated in these outbreaks. The second is a heat-labile enterotoxin that is associated with diarrhea, and clinically resembles Clostridium perfringens food poisoning. Implicated foods include poultry, cooked meats, mashed potatoes, various soups, and desserts (a longer incubation period cause diarrheal syndrome) (Lederberg, 2000).

Vibrio cholerae.

ICD-9 001; ICD-10 A00

The organism was first described and named by Pacini in 1854; thirty-two years latter Koch isolated the same organism, and renamed it 'Kommabacillus' because of the characteristic comma-shaped appearance (Lederberg, Currently, there are over thirty Vibrio species. Vibrios are gramnegative facultative aerobes, and thiosulfate citrate bile salts agar is frequently used for isolation. Two main types of Vibrio cholerae strains have been identified: Vibrio cholerae O1, and Vibrio cholerae O139 or "non-O1" (Albert, 1994). Vibrio cholerae O1 is divided into two biotypes: classical and El-Tor, and can be further separated into one of three serogroups: Inaba, Ogawa, and Hikojima. V. cholerae is spread via contaminated water and food (Jawetz et al., 1989). The organism's principal virulence factor is the production of cholera toxin that is an activator of cyclic adenosine monophosophate (cAMP) in intestinal epithelial cells. This results in watery diarrhea, and if untreated, may cause dehydration leading to death. A number of other members of the Vibrio species have been associated with food borne diseases, including V. parahemolyticus, ICD-9005.4; ICD-10A05.3, and V. vulnificus, ICD-9005.8; ICD-10A05.8 (Lederberg, 2000).

• Clostridium perfringens.

ICD-9 005.2; ICD-10A05.2

C. perfringens is an anaerobic, spore-forming, grampositive rod that is frequently found in excreta from humans and animals. It is also found in raw meats, and poultry. There are five types of C. perfringens (A to E); Jawetz et al., (1989). Of the various types of C. perfringens type A is the one predominantly associated with the consumption of cooked meat or poultry, which has been allowed to remain between 15 - 60°C for more than 2 hrs, and this results in a noninflammatory diarrhea (Lederberg, 2000). C. perfringens enterotoxin (CPE) is a heat-labile 35000 Dalton (D) protein encoded by the cpe gene. It has a complex mechanism of actions and appears to insert itself into the host cell membrane to form a protein complex. This result in membrane permeability changes, and losing of intracellular potassium (Koneman et al., 1997).

Escherichia coli.

ICD-9 008.0;ICD-10 A04.0-A04.4

E. coli is a short gram-negative rod that may form chain. Typically, it produces positive tests for indole, lysine decarboxylase, mannitol fermentation, and produces gas from lactose (Jawetz, 1989). The majority of E. coli species in the gastrointestinal tract are harmless unless displaced to other part of the body, i.e., urinary tract. The pathogenic E. coli species are

divided into six groups according to their actions in the body as reported by Benenson and chin (1995), and Lederberg, (2000):

- 1- Enteropathogenic (EPEC), ICD-9 008.0;ICD-10 A04.0.
- 2- Enterotoxigenic (ETEC), ICD-9 008.0;ICD-10 A04.1.
- 3- Enteroinvasive (EIEC), ICD-9 008.0; ICD-10 A04.2.
- 4- Enterohaemoorhagic (EHEC) ICD-9 008.0;ICD-10 A04.3.
- 5- Enteroadherent (EAEC), ICD-9 008.0;ICD-10 A04.4.
- 6- The relatively newcomers Shiga toxin-producing E. coli.

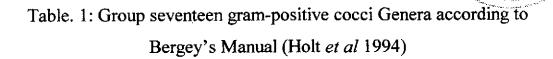
1.2 Staphylococcus

1.2.1 Historical Introduction

More than hundred years have elapsed since cocci were first observed in diseased tissues and in pus obtained from human abscesses. These were called "Micrococci" by Von Recklinghausen (1871), Microsporon septicum by Klebs in 1872 and "monads" by Hueter in 1872 (Ogston, 1882). In 1880, Ogston and at the same time, Pasteur concluded that a cluster-forming coccus was the cause of certain pyogenic abscess in man. That organism was named "Staphylococcus" (Ogston, 1882).

The genus Staphylococcus was derived from the Greek word staphule (a bunch of grapes) and kokkus (a grain or berry) (Hine, 1998). Afterwards, the name aureus and albus were used to distinguish different species depending on the color of colonies (gold, and white, respectively) on the blood agar medium (Heritage et al., 1999).

4 0 VO



| Genus planococcus | Genus Ruminococcus |
|--------------------|--|
| Genus Coprococcus | Genus Deinobacter |
| Genus Salinicoccus | Genus Deinococcus |
| Genus Leuconostoc | Genus Saccharococcus |
| Genus Pediococcus | Genus Staphylococcus |
| Genus Sarcina | Genus Trichococcus |
| Genus Vagococcus | Genus Peptostreptococcus, |
| Genus Aerococcus | Genus Stomatococcus |
| | Genus Coprococcus Genus Salinicoccus Genus Leuconostoc Genus Pediococcus Genus Sarcina Genus Vagococcus |

1.2.2 Classification

The *genus* Staphylococcus listed within the second Major category (Gram- positive eubacteria that have cell wall) in-group seventeen (gram-positive cocci) according to Bergey's Manual of Systematic Bacteriology (Holt *et al.*, 1994), this group consists of twenty-four genera as shown in Table (1)

The *genus* Staphylococcus is currently composed of thirty-three species (Holt *et al.*, 1994); seventeen species were found in man and primates, twelve species were found in other animals (Biberstein *et al.*, 1984), and four species mostly environmental (Koneman *et al.*, 1997). Only three of them are coagulase-positive (Roberson *et al.*, 1992). Humans may become colonized or infected by members of this Genus due to frequent contact with animals. Among the Staphylococci frequently involved in human infections are *S. aureus* (coagulase-positive), *S. saprophyticus*, and *S.epidermidis* (coagulase-negative) (Degener *et al.*, 1994).

1.2.3 Morphology and Characteristics

1.2.3.1 Cell morphology and physiology

Staphylococci are spherical, 0.5-1.5 µm in diameter, occurring singly, in pairs, and in irregular clusters because they divide in more than one plane (Prescott *et al.*, 1990). Young cocci are strongly gram positive; on aging, however, many cells become gram variable. They are nonmotile and do not form spores. The staphylococci are facultative anaerobes, and Chemo-organo-trophic

in both respiratory and fermentative metabolic test (Holt *et al.*, 1994). They are usually catalase positive, and oxidase negative. However, nitrate is often reduced to nitrite (Koneman *et al.*, 1997).

1.2.3.2 Cultures

Staphylococci grow readily on most bacteriologic media (Lachica, 1984). On the solid media colonies are 1.5-2.5mm round, smooth, raised, and glistening. Colonies are usually opaque producing pigments that vary from white, cream, yellow to orange (Holt *et al.*, 1994).

The optimum temperature for the growth is 30-37 °C, but pigment formation is best between 20-25°C. They are relatively resistant to heat up to 50°C for 30 minutes Tuncan and Martin, (1990). It can tolerate up to 10% sodium chloride (Chapman, 1945a). They are susceptible to lysis by lysostaphin but not by lysozyme (Garcia *et al.*, 1980).

1.2.3.3 Growth media

It is common for staphylococci to be present in mixed cultures with a variety of other organisms in carriers, feces, air, wounds, food, and in various surfaces. In addition, the total number of organisms present may be very large, i.e., 10^8 to 10^{10} per gram in feces (Finegold and Sweeney, 1961). The staphylococci may form a relatively small percentage of the total bacterial population. Furthermore, when staphylococci are present in mixed culture with certain Gram-negative bacilli, the later could suppress the

staphylococci, (Noleto, et al., 1987) so that the recovery is difficult except by the use of selective media (Devriese and Hajek, 1980). Several media have been developed, which assist in rapid identification such as Mannitol salt agar (Finegold, and Sweeney, 1961), Staphylococcus medium no. 110, (Niskanen and Aalto, 1978), and Baird Parker medium (Lachica, 1984).

1.2.4 Staphylococcal Diseases

These organisms are the most bacteria that cause diseases in human ranging from a single pustule to sepsis and death. They are normally found in: the upper respiratory tract, skin, intestine, human vagina (Prescott et al., 1990) and in animal (Biberstein et al., 1984). Virulence varies from one strain to another but the most important pathogen to humans is coagulase positive Staphylococcus aureus (Roder et al., 1995). However, coagulase negative strains are increasingly more important in bloodstream infection (intravascular catheters), urinary tract infections of women, and in hospital-acquired infections (Benenson and Chin, 1995).

The WHO's International Classification of Diseases (ICD) (9th revision) divided staphylococcal diseases into four groups each group has a specific code because staphylococcal diseases have distinctly clinical and epidemiologic patterns in community, in newborns, and among hospitalized patients (Benenson and Chin, 1995):

i. Staphylococcal diseases in the community

ICD-9680, 041.1; ICD-10102

Boils, carbuncles, furuncles, abscesses, impetigo cellulites, sepsis, pneumonia, arthritis, endocarditis, and osteomyelitis

- ii. Staphylococcal diseases in hospital nurseries ICD-9684, 041.1; ICD-10L00
 - Staphylococcal Scalded Skin Syndrome (SSSS), abscess of the breast
- iii. Staphylococcal diseases in hospital and surgical wards ICD-9998, 5; ICD-10T81.4
- iv. Toxic Shock Syndrome (TSS) ICD-9 785.5; ICD10 A48.3

1.3 <u>Staphylococcal food intoxication</u> ICD-9005.0;ICD10A.5.0

1.3.1 Introduction

Staphylococcal food poisoning (enterotoxicosis) is classified as a disease of moderate severity (Mossel and Netten, 1990). The relative incidence in various countries is varied. In France, it has been recorded since the beginning of the 19th century (Oliver, 1830). Between 1977 and 1981 in USA Staphylococcal food intoxication was the second most common cause of reported foodborne illness (Holmberg and Blake, 1984). The Center for Disease Control, Atlanta USA (CDC) estimated that staphylococcal food intoxication approximately causes 185060 cases, 1753 hospitalizations, and 2 deaths each year in USA (Mead *et al.*, 1999). In UK, it is possible that Staphylococcal food intoxication is the most common cause of food poisoning (Heritage *et al.*, 1999).

In Canada, it is responsible for one-third of reported food poisoning incidents (Peterkin and Sharpe, 1984). Between 1986 and 1995 *S.aureus* was the next most common food borne pathogen in Taiwan (Pan *et al.*, 1997). Previous unpublished data has shown that staphylococcal food intoxication is the most common food poisoning in Makkah between 1996-1998.

1.3.2 Symptoms

The symptoms of staphylococcal food intoxication depend on the dosage of the enterotoxin consumed, and ranges from being barely noticeable to deaths, which is rare. It is not a reportable disease (Heritage *et al*, 1999). The symptoms in general are vomiting, nausea, cramps, prostration, diarrhea, sometime subnormal temperature and lowered blood pressure (Prescott *et al.*, 1990). The duration of the illness is from one to two days, and in severe cases it may require hospitalization.

1.3.3 Enterotoxigenicity of staphylococci

Many previous unsuccessful attempts have been published relate enterotoxigenicity to some other properties thermostable nuclease, deoxyribonuclease, and coagulase (Casman and Bennett 1965) and (Brandish and Willis, 1970). In general, there is a good correlation with coagulase, but some isolates that are coagulase-negative have been reported to produce enterotoxins Practically, all food poisoning outbreaks are (Udo et al., 1999). coagulase positive staphylococci. Data on the due to

enterotoxigenicity of *S. aureus* strains isolated from humans and foods indicated that more than 50 % are enterotoxigenic (Jawetz *et al.*, 1989).

1.3.4 Food involved and source of contamination

The range of foods commonly contaminated with *S. aureus* are broad including; cooked shrimp (Silverman *et al.*, 1961) raw and cooked meats (Genigeorgis *et al.*, 1971a and Kotzekidou, 1992), egg products, natural and synthetic creams, macaroni, pies, high-salt foods, canned mushrooms (Brunner and Wong, 1992), milk (Harvey and Gilmour, 1985, Hewedy *et al.*, 1990a and Iannelli *et al.*, 1998), and milk products (Bautista *et al.*, 1988), frozen precooked foods (Raj and Liston, 1961), dry cured Iberian ham (Rodriguez *et al.*, 1996), and cheese (Gaya *et al.*, 1988). However, with the exception of dairy products, where the staphylococci may originate from a mastitis infection of animals (Hewedy *et al.*, 1990b and Forsman *et al.*, 1997),

Virtually all incriminated foods have been touched or handled by humans (Lim, 1998). On the other hand, the competing bacteria of most heated foods (any type of heat treatment) that interfere with the growth of the staphylococci, will be lost, which will allow the staphylococcus activity especially if the heated food is re-contaminated from encountered source (Noleto and Bergdoll, 1980).

1.3.5 Investigations

The Public Health Laboratory Service Communicable Disease Surveillance Center (UK) described some definitions, which are very important during food poisoning investigations in the following terms, (Wieneke *et al.*, 1993):

- A case is a person with symptoms from whom the relevant organism has been isolated or who has been affected in an outbreak of food poisoning
- An outbreak is defined when there are two or more related cases of food poisoning, and classified as family or general outbreak
- Sporadic cases occur when an affected patient has had no known association with another person and infected with the same organism.

From the epidemiological viewpoint; the main purposes of the investigations of an outbreak are to find out the responsible source of contamination, and to determine the organism that was involved, and to prevent a repetition of the same set of conditions (Benenson and Chin, 1995).

Investigations consist of gathering information, collection of food samples, collection of specimens from human sources and the laboratory tests. The results of these investigations can lead to incriminated food and the allocation and elimination of the ultimate source of responsible organisms (Hobbs and Roberts, 1990).

1.4 Characteristics leading to S. aureus identification

1.4.1 Introduction

All S. aureus isolated from humans or animals, when grown in vivo or in vitro, produce several extracellular enzymes and some other active factors that contribute to their virulence (Blobel et al., 1959). These enzymes play an important role in the which include: Catalase, Coagulase, identification tests. Thermonuclease (TNase), Deoxyribonuclease (DNase) or Hemolysins, and Enterotoxins (Jawetz et al., 1989). On the other hand, there are some conventional tests including: Gram staining, Motility, Oxidase, and Mannitol fermentation, which are essential for identifying S. aureus.

1.4.2 The Catalase

Catalase is one of the several enzymes produced by *S. aureus* (Holt *et al.*, 1994). It prevents the accumulation of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), by it's conversion to water and nascent oxygen. The molecular weight is 232,000 D, and produced in small amounts during the logarithmic growth phase, and in larger quantities during the stationary phase (Jensen and Hyde, 1963). It is attached to the intracellular membrane in an inactive form, and when released from the membrane; becomes activated (Martin *et al.*, 1976). Catalase is very sensitive to heat, and loses its activity at 35°C, and at pH near 7. The *genus* Staphylococcus is differentiated

from the *genus* Streptococcus by the catalase test (Holt *et al.*, 1994).

1.4.3 The Coagulase

The correlation between the pathogenicity of certain staphylococci and their ability to produce coagulase has led to extensive studies of the clotting enzymes (Blobel *et al.*, 1959). Most strains of *S. aureus* produce Staphylocoagulase (free coagulase) and Bound coagulase (clumping factor), which cause plasma to clot by converting fibrinogen to fibrin (Luijendijk, 1996).

I - Staphylocoagulase (Free coagulase)

In 1903, Loeb observed that *S. aureus* caused coagulation of goose plasma *in vitro*. He indicated that an enzyme was formed in the culture, which converts fibrinogen to fibrin by activating a coagulase reacting factor present in plasma. Staphylocoagulase is an extracellular single-chain protein with a molecular weight of 61000 D (Engels *et al.*, 1978). It is thermolabile and has isoelectric point of pH 4.53. It can be detected by using the tube test. It is produced as early as the log phase and continues throughout the logarithmic phase (Duthie, 1954). The limitations of this method are: the type of plasma used, the length of incubation, the degree of clot formation, and false-positive and false-negative results have been indicated as sources of error (Baker *et al.*, 1985). But it is usually recommended to perform the tube test on all negative slide coagulase test strains (Cheesbrough, 1985).

Table (2): Some of the coagulase test commercial kits

| Kit | Manufacturer |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------|
| StaphAurex | Murex, Norcross, GA |
| Staphaurex Plus | Murex Diagnostics Limited |
| Pastorex Staphplus | Sanofi, Marnes-La-Coquette, France |
| Slidex Staph | BioMerieux-Vitek, Hazelwood MO |
| Staphlatex | American Micro Scan |
| Accu- Staph | Carr-Scarborough, Stone Mountain GA |
| Staph Rapid | Roche.Nutley NJ |
| SeroSTAT Staph | Scott Laboratories, Inc. |
| Veri-Staph | Zeus technologies, Raritan, NJ |

II - Bound Coagulase (Clumping factor)

Duthie (1954) named the factor that converts fibrinogen to fibrin directly and does not require a coagulase reacting factor as Bound coagulase (Cheesbrough, 1985). It is responsible for the clumping associated with the slide coagulase test. It resists boiling but can be destroyed by autoclaving or proteolytic digestion. It can be detected using slide coagulase test, and it is the most widely used assay for *S. aureus* identification (Guardati *et al.*, 1993).

Many additional modified slide/tube tests have been developed and employed to distinguish *S. aureus* from other species of *Staphylococcus* (Jungkind *et al.*, 1984) these tests include:

a) Latex agglutination.

This method uses latex beads coated with plasma to detect both clumping factor, and the immunoglobulin molecules present on the beads to detect protein A (Koneman et al., 1997). Several commercial Kits are listed in Table (2). Many evaluations comparing these tests have been published (Myrick and Ellnerz, 1982, Doern, 1982, Aldridge et al., 1984, Pennell et al., 1984, and Luijendijk et al., 1996). The recommendation was in favor of Staphaurex plus and Pastorex staphplus to have excellent sensitivity for identifying S. aureus in clinical samples, because they optimal sensitivity for identifying both showed an (MSSA) and Methicillin-resistant Methicillin-susceptible (MRSA) strains of S. aureus.

b) Passive hemagglutination

The passive hemagglutination test procedures use sheep red blood cells that are sensitized with fibrinogen to detect clumping factor on the surface of *S. aureus* cells (Luijendijk *et al.*, 1996). Several products that use this approach are commercially available and include: Staphloslide (BDMS), Hemastaph (Remel) and Staphyslide (bioMerieux SA, France). Some workers prefer the passive hemagglutination procedure because a nonsensitized red blood cell suspension is included as a negative control for each test (Koneman *et al.*, 1997).

c) Immunoenzymatic assay (IEA)

It can identify *S. aureus* strains that are negative to clumping factor and protein A, which represent up to 10 - 15% of *S. aureus* isolates. The assay is based on a monoclonal antibody (Mab). Mab C1-10/11, prepared against the *S.aureus* endo-β-acetylglucosaminidase (SaG) an enzyme produced by all isolates of this species. These tests provide results more rapidly than the tube coagulase test and more accurate than the slide coagulase assay (Guardati *et al.*, 1993).

d) Other coagulase tests include:

1- StaphASE test, (bioMerieux- Vitek, Inc.), seems to be the most advanced form of the paper strip method designed by Anandam (1971). It is performed in a microcupule similar to that used for API (Analytical Profile Index) kit. The microcupule contains dehydrated rabbit plasma. Several purified colonies are emulsified in a special medium and inoculated in the cupule. Clumping of the suspension within one minute is a positive test.

2- Fluorogenic coagulase test; is performed by inoculating a small cupule containing the substrate, which detects coagulase that reacts with prothrombin to form a complex called staphylothrombin (Manufacturer terms). The staphylothrombin then enzymatical cleavage of Catalyzed fluorogenic peptide that is present in the test cupule, causing the release of a fluorescent light. It has been demonstrated to be a highly sensitive and specific test (Janda *et al.*, 1994).

1.4.4 Deoxyribonuclease (DNase)

Cunningham et al., (1956) demonstrated that S. aureus produces a thermostable, calcium-activated, exocellular enzyme called deoxyribonuclease. Other microorganisms, including S.epidermidis, elaborate similar nucleases. However, they are heat labile.

S. aureus deoxyribonuclease is a phosphodiesterase, which can cleave either DNA or RNA (Prescott et al., 1990). It consists of a single polypeptide chain and a molecular weight of approximately 17000D, and the optimum pH for DNase production is 8.3 (Erickson and Deibel, 1973). The optimum temperature for the maximum enzyme production is 37°C.

Many investigators thought of using the production of DNase along with coagulase as an index of pathogenicity (Chesbro and Auborn, 1967, and Niskanen and Nurmi, 1976). Jarvis and Wynne (1969), Hoover *et al* (1983), Klapes and Vesley, (1986) suggested that the DNase test must be included in the clinical laboratory for the classification of pathogenic staphylococci, along with the coagulase test. Brandish and Willis (1970) have found a remarkable correlation between thermostable nucleases (TNase) production and coagulase formation.

On the other hand, and due to the difficulty in detecting the enterotoxins in foods, Chesbro and Auborn (1967) suggested using TNase as an indicator for the presence of enterotoxigenic strains of S. aureus in foods. Studies by Lachica et al. (1971), Lachica (1976), Niskanen and Lindroth, (1976a) and Emswiler-Rose et al. (1980) indicated that more than 95% of enterotoxigenic staphylococci produce heat-stable nucleases. However, Koupal and Deibel, (1978) described a rapid Qualitative method for the detection of heat-stable nucleases in foods instead of enterotoxins detection because it's easier to demonstrate.

1.4.5 <u>Hemolysins</u>

At least four hemolysins or cytolytic toxins are produced by staphylococci, indicated as alpha (α), beta (β), gamma (γ), and delta (δ) hemolysins. They are excreted by *S. aureus* strains together or singly (Prescott *et al.*, 1990). Almost all strains of *S.aureus* produce the alpha hemolysin, but beta hemolysin is more commonly produced by strains from animal origin (Koneman *et al.*, 1997). They have molecular weights ranging from 21000 to 68000 Dalton.

Alpha toxin (α)

In addition to its lethal effect on a wide variety of cell types, including its lytic effect on erythrocytes, the toxin exhibits a wide variety of other biological activities (Devriese and Hajek, 1980). It is excreted from staphylococcal cells as an inactive proteolytic enzyme that must be activated by another protease (Koneman *et al.*, 1997). It is also a potent neurotoxin and responsible for the zone of hemolysis observed around colonies of some *S. aureus* strains growing on sheep blood agar (Cheesbrough, 1985).

Beta toxin (β)

In 1935, Glenny and Stevens described it as a separate hemolysin. A wide zone of incomplete or partial hemolysis is produced around colonies after incubation at 35°C, and becomes clear and complete at lower temperatures (Cheesbrough, 1985). This explains the so-called "hot-cold" hemolysin because its hemolytic properties is enhanced if the sheep blood agar medium was incubated at 35-37°C and followed by maintaining at 4°C (Devriese and Hajek, 1980).

Gamma toxin (γ)

In 1930, Smith and Price described the gamma toxin. This toxin acts primarily as a surfactant, and may play a major role that causes diarrhea seen in staphylococcal food poisoning by activating the adenylate cyclase (Koneman *et al.*, 1997).

Delta toxin (δ)

In 1947, Williams and Harper described the Delta toxin. It's a weakly specific substance active against a wide variety of cellular structures. It was found to be heat labile, and present in some strains of *S. aureus*. It's able to activate adenylate cyclase, resulting in cyclic-AMP production similar to the cholera toxin action (Koneman *et al.*, 1997).

1.4.6 Exotoxins

Some strains of *S. aureus* produce exotoxins including; L'eucocidin which cause degranulation of the cytoplasm and destroys phagocytic leucocytes, Exfoliative toxin which is responsible for Staphylococcal Scalded Skin Syndrome (SSSS), Toxic Shock Syndrome (TSS), Enterotoxin F (TSST-1), which also cause systemic toxic shock but not emesis (Wieneke *et al.*, 1993), and other enterotoxins (Prescott *et al.*, 1990), which will be mentioned later.

1.4.7 Oxidase

It is an enzyme that brings about oxidation, i.e., combining

oxygen or loss of electrons in the respiratory chain (Cheesbrough, 1985). The oxidase test is used to assist in the identification of *S.aureus*, which do not produce oxidase enzymes (Koneman *et al.*, 1997), and the test is also available commercially.

1.4.8 Gram staining

A differential stain by which bacteria are classified as: Gram-positive (dark blue or violet colored) or Gram-negative (red colored) depending upon whether they retain or loose the primary stain (crystal violet), when subjected to treatment with a decolorizing agent (Collee *et al.*, 1996).

There are numerous modifications of the Gram stain; some of them are useful for staining smears of pure cultures such as Hucker modification (Pelczar, et al., 1957). Others, which are valuable for preparations of body discharges such as Kopeloff and Beerman modification. However, the Gram stain does not always gives a clear-cut reaction because some organisms are Gram-variable (Harley and Prescott, 1990), and that the results must be interpreted with care.

1.4.9 Motility

There are two types of bacterial motion: Brownian movement, and true motility (Harley and Prescott, 1990). The first type results from the random motion of the water molecules bombarding the bacteria causing false movement. The true motility or self-propulsion has been recognized in many bacteria, and

involves two different mechanisms: flagellar motion, and gliding motion. The hanging drop test can examine the above types of motility or nonmotility (Benson, 1994). Nevertheless, *S. aureus* is non-motile bacteria

1.4.10 Susceptibility to antibiotics

In 1896 a 21-year-old French medical student named Ernest Duchesne discovered the penicillin, but his work was forgotten (Harley and Prescott, 1990). Thereafter, Alexander Fleming rediscovered the penicillin in 1928. He was the first to describe the antibacterial properties of penicillin, produced from a mould that he had originally misidentified (Heritage *et al.*, 1999). The discovery of penicillin stimulated the search for other antibiotics.

Many antibiotics discovered have been since then (Cephalothin, Oxacillin, Cotrimoxazole, Clindamycin, Erythromycin, Gentamicin, Oxytetracycline, Chloramphenicol, Streptomycin, Methicillin etc.). Some of them are narrow-spectrum drugs; that is, effective only against a limited variety of microorganisms. On the other hand, some are broad spectrum and attack many kinds of pathogens.

Antibiotics can be either synthesized by microorganisms or chemically semi-synthesized, which are natural antibiotics that have been chemically modified by the addition of extra chemical groups (Lim, 1998). The term of Minimal Inhibitory Concentration (MIC) is the lowest concentration of a drug that prevents growth of a particular microorganism, whereas Minimal Lethal Concentration

(MLC) describes the lowest drug concentration that kills the microorganisms.

Two methods have been used to perform the sensitivity test include: the dilution sensitivity test, and the disk diffusion test (Cheesbrough, 1985). The latter is recommended if a rapidly growing aerobic or facultative pathogen like *Staphylococcus* or *Pseudomonas* is being tested, i.e., Kirby-Bauer method recommended by the US Federal and Drug Administration (FDA) and the Subcommittee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing under the National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (Benson, 1994)

Staphylococci are variably sensitive to many antimicrobial drugs. Resistance falls into several classes:

- 1) ß-lactamase production, which is under plasmid control, that acquire the staphylococci resistance to many Penicillins (penicillin G, ampicillin etc.
- 2) Resistance to Nafcillin, Methicillin and Oxacillin are independent of β-lactamase production, and the genes reside on the chromosome. The resistance mechanism is related to the lack of or inaccessibility of certain penicillin-binding proteins in the organisms (Harley and Prescott, 1990). However, The enormous sales of antimicrobial drugs and the misuse of these agents increased the number of drugresistance pathogens (Stryer, 1988). Some of these strains could be resistant up to twenty different types of Antimicrobial agents (Masaudi *et al.*, 1988).

1.5 Staphylococcal enterotoxins

1.5.1 Definition

The staphylococcal enterotoxins are a series of proteins, produced by enterotoxigenic strains of *S. aureus* (Lim, 1998). They are found in supernatant of the culture media and in contaminated food after suitable incubation, (Sugiyama *et al.*, 1960) and cause the typical enterotoxic reaction in monkeys.

They are heat-stable and resistant to the action of gut enzymes (Koneman et al., 1997), and the cells and receptors in the gut responsible for the binding of Staphylococcal Enterotoxins (SEs) have not been obviously identified (Krakauer, 1999). Also the precise mechanism of emetic effect of enterotoxin is still ambiguous (Wood et al., 1997), but it is probably the result of central nervous system stimulation (vomiting center) after the toxin acts on neurological receptors in the gut (Jawetz et al., 1989). The term "superantigen" is used to describe their activation of a large proportion of T cells (5-30 %) whereas, a conventional antigen stimulates less than 0.01 % of the T cell population (Krakauer, 1999).

1.5.2 <u>Historical introduction</u>

The staphylococci were established as the causative agent of foodborne intoxication when Dack *et al* (1930) isolated a strain of *S. aureus* from food responsible for an outbreak of food poisoning. In 1930, Jordan prepared sterile filtrates from broth cultures of this organism, fed them to human volunteers, and

observed the effect of these filtrates on humans. When an assay system was developed, he discovered that oral administration of toxic staphylococcal preparations induced vomiting in monkeys. Later, Dolman *et al.*(1936) devised the "kitten" test.

For twenty-five years, these were the only method available to study enterotoxins, until some investigators from the Food Research Institute, University of Chicago, and Food and Drug Administration, Washington, DC provided the key for understanding the nature of the enterotoxin by utilizing the tools of modern biochemistry and immunology (Casman and Bennett, 1965).

1.5.3 Composition of enterotoxins

The enterotoxins molecules are comprised entirely of only a single polypeptide chain (Bergdoll *et al.*, 1971). Fig.1 shows the Polypeptide chain to contain relatively large amounts of Lysine, Aspartic, and Glutamic acids. There are some differences in the composition of the enterotoxins including the number of amino acid and their sequence, the N-terminal amino acid and the C-terminal amino acid. Based upon amino acid identity, the enterotoxins may fall into two groups Staphylococcal Enterotoxin A (SEA), SED, SEE, SEH, and SEI in the first group (31 to 83% amino acid identity) and SEB, SEC, and SEG in the second group (62 to 64 % amino acid identity) (Munson *et al.*, 1998).

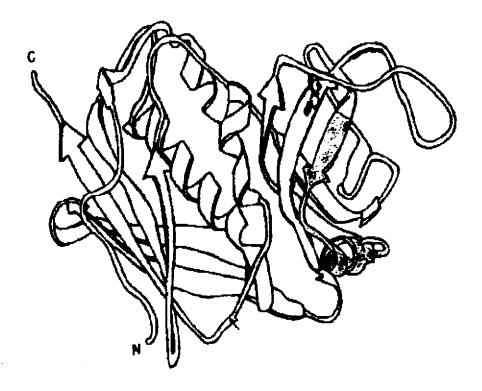


Fig. (1): A ribbon diagram of the three-dimensional of Staphylococcal Enterotoxin B (SEB) adapted from Wood *et al.*, 1997.

1.5.4 Properties of enterotoxins

The purified preparations of the enterotoxins are fluffy, snow-white colored, which are hygroscopic and readily soluble in water and salt solutions (Bergdoll *et al.*, 1959). They are resistant to proteolytic enzymes such as: rennin, trypsin and chymotrypsin. However, Pepsin destroys their activity at a pH of about 2 (Bergdoll *et al.*, 1971).

They are generally heat resistant (Niskanen and Nurmi, 1976), the crude solutions are resistant to boiling for 30 minutes, but the purified enterotoxins appear to be more sensitive to heat than the crude one (Hernandez *et al.*, 1993). Enterotoxin B appeared to be the most heat resistant of the enterotoxins (Bergdoll *et al.*, 1971).

1.5.5 Types of enterotoxins

In 1959, Casman conclusively established the occurrence of more than one immunological type of staphylococcal enterotoxin. The bases for differentiation of these proteins are their precipitin reactions with specific antibodies (Bergdoll *et al.*, 1965). Therefore, two serological different enterotoxins have been identified and suggested that the strain 196E which is associated with "food poisoning" be referred to as "type F" and the second one as "type E" because of its production by most of "enteritis" origin strains (Casman, 1959).

To provide greater flexibility and to facilitate the designation of any other staphylococcal enterotoxin that might be identified in the future, an open meeting was held at the 62nd Annual Meeting of the American Society for Microbiology to establish a system of nomenclature. It was proposed that the staphylococcal enterotoxins that had been tentatively designated types "F" and "E" be henceforth known as A and B respectively (Casman *et al.*, 1963).

Ten staphylococcal enterotoxins have been identified: A (SEA) (Casman, 1960), B (SEB) (Bergdoll *et al.*, 1959), C₁ (SEC₁) (Bergdoll *et al.*, 1965), C₂ (SEC₂) (Avena and Bergdoll, 1967), C₃ (SEC₃) (Reiser *et al.*, 1984), D (SED) (Casman *et al*1967), E (SEE) (Bergdoll *et al.*, 1971), H (SEH) (Su and Wong, 1995), G (SEG) (Munson *et al.*, 1998), and I (SEI) (Munson *et al.*, 1998). However, there is a possibility to identify more SEs (Su and Wong, 1998).

Staphylococcal Enterotoxin A (SEA)

Casman first identified SEA in 1960. Its molecular weight is 27800 D, and has isoelectric point at pH 7.3. Under almost optimal conditions of pH, aeration, and temperature, SEA production occurs under nearly all water activity (a_w) conditions that allow growth of microorganism (Ewald and Notermans, 1988). The Nitrogen content is 16.2%, and the total number of amino acid residues is 240. The emetic dose (ED₅₀) is 5 μg/monkey. It's an extremely potent gastrointestinal toxin; as little as 100 ng is sufficient to cause symptoms of intoxication (Rasooly *et al.*, 1997). It's a leading cause of food poisoning. Markus and Silverman (1970) reported that enterotoxin A production starts heavily in the exponential phase, so this might

be the reason for it's greater frequency in causing outbreak. In general, enterotoxin secretion occurred under all conditions that permit growth of the organism (Carpenter and Silverman, 1976). Inactivation by heat is dependent on the concentration of the heated SEA (Denny *et al.*, 1971). However the serological components of purified SEA could be destroyed by autoclaving at 121.1 °C for 5 to 15 minutes (Akhtar *et al.*, 1996).

Staphylococcal Enterotoxin B (SEB)

Bergdoll et al (1959) identified the second type of staphylococcal enterotoxin. It has a molecular weight of 28,366D and the isoelectric point at pH 8.6. The Nitrogen content is 16.1%, and the total number of amino acid residues is 239. The ED₅₀ is 5 μ g/2-3Kg monkey. It produces at the beginning of the stationary phase in larger quantities. makes the purification of this enterotoxin easier than the others. However, after several transfers of the enterotoxin B producing culture, the production of the SEB declines rapidly in contrast to strains produce SEA. The possible reason for low incidence of enterotoxin B food poisoning outbreak is the delay in enterotoxin production during the growth phase (Markus and Silverman, 1970). Production of SEB is very sensitive to reduction in (a_w) and is hardly produced at (a_w) less than 0.93 despite the extensive growth of the organism (Troller, 1971). The production of SEB was better when pH was increased and

sodium chloride concentration was decreased (Genigeorgis and Sadler, 1966).

Staphylococcal Enterotoxin C (SEC)

Bergdoll et al., (1965) have succeeded identification of the third enterotoxin namely enterotoxin C. Three forms of enterotoxin C have been purified (Munson et al., 1998). They have been classified as C₁ (Bergdoll *et al.*, 1965), C₂ (Avena and Bergdoll, 1967), and C₃ (Reiser et al., 1984) on the basis of their different isoelectric points ranging from 8.6 to 7.0 (Noterman et al., 1988). There are minor differences in the other properties, e.g., the total number of amino acid residues (296 and 294 for C₁ and C₂, respectively), and their molecular weights ranging from 34100 to 34000D. The 50% emetic doses (ED₅₀) ranged from 5-10 μg/monkey. The results obtained by Otero et al (1990) indicated that both enterotoxins C₁ and C₂ were produced during either the exponential growth phase in some strains or at the beginning of the stationary phase. The effect of water activity (a_w) on SEC production follows the same pattern as with SEB (Ewald and Notermans, 1988). As the concentration of NaCl increased up to 10%, yields of SEC decreased to undetectable levels (Genigeorgis et al., 1971).

Staphylococcal Enterotoxin D (SED)

Casman et al. (1967) identified serologically the fourth staphylococcal enterotoxin. The production of SED alone or

with other enterotoxins by incriminated strains of food poisoning indicates that its role in food poisoning is second to enterotoxin A. Because it can be denatured very easily, and difficult to separate from other antigens; therefore, this enterotoxin is very difficult to purify (Bergdoll, 1972). The minimum amount of SED that could be detected was 1ng/ml and was produced at (a_w) of 0.86 (Ewald and Notermans, 1988).

Staphylococcal Enterotoxin E (SEE)

Bergdoll *et al.* (1971) identified the fifth enterotoxin as enterotoxin E. The molecular weight is 29600D, and pH 7.0 for its isoelectric point. The total number of amino acid residues is 259. The ED₅₀ is between 10 and $20\mu g/monkey$.

Staphylococcal Enterotoxin H (SEH)

Su and Lee Wong (1988) have designated a newly characterized enterotoxin H that was purified from *S. aureus* FRI-569. The molecular weight is 28500D, and the isoelectric point was estimated to be 5.7. The ED₅₀ has not been yet determined but it is believed to be lower than 30 μ g / monkey (Su and Wong, 1995).

Staphylococcal Enterotoxin G (SEG) and I (SEI)

Munson *et al.*, (1998) reported two new staphylococcal enterotoxin genes were identified, and designated *seg* and *sei*. They consist of 777 and 729 nucleotides, respectively; encoding

precursor proteins of 258 (SEG) and 242 (SEI) amino acids. The molecular weight for enterotoxins G and I are 27.043 D and 24.928 D, respectively (Abe *et al.*, 2000).

1.5.6 Detection methods

1.5.6.1 Introduction

Characterization and identification of staphylococcal enterotoxins from culture media and food samples implicated in staphylococcal food poisoning outbreak have been hindered due to the low levels of enterotoxins that cause intoxication. In addition, the lack of the practical, sensitive and rapid available test methods caused more difficulties in detecting even the unidentified enterotoxins.

1.5.6.2 Biological methods

These were the first methods used by the early investigators, which methods provide suitable means to detect the existence of undiscovered enterotoxins (Bergdoll *et al*1965), On the other hand, these methods cannot differentiate between the different types of enterotoxins (Su and Wong, 1998). It also requires special facilities, which are very difficult to provide in all concerned laboratories. Of the various animals that have been tested for sensitivity to enterotoxins, monkeys (Jordan and Broom, 1931) and cats (Dolman *et al.*, 1936); chimpanzees were the most sensitive (Wilson, 1959). The monkey-feeding test is more recommended than Cats test because the latter gives variable to unreliable results. Cats are also relatively insensitive to enterotoxin

C (Bergdoll, 1972). The monkey- feeding test utilizes six young rhesus monkeys that weigh 2-3 Kg for each sample. Samples are administered in solution, 50 ml via a stomach tube, then the animals should be observed for at least 6 hours. Vomiting by at least two animals was accepted as a positive reaction of the enterotoxin.

1.5.6.3 <u>Immunological Techniques</u>

Most specific and sensitive tests available for enterotoxins are based on the reaction of the enterotoxins with its specific antibody. Highly potent specific antisera can be prepared in rabbits, then used in vitro. Many tests have been developed, and therefore, it could be easier to handle them in the following groups:

1. The first group contains the gel diffusion precipitin reaction tests. The first test in this section is the single gel diffusion test; in this test a solution containing an antigen is placed over a semi-solid agar column containing its homologous antiserum. The second method called the double gel diffusion test. This was developed by Oakley and Fulthorpe (1953). In 1958 Ouchterlony devised a double gel diffusion test that utilizes an agar plate. Followed by slight modification by Wadsworth in 1957 who utilized a thin layer of agar on an ordinary microscope slide and named it microslide double gel diffusion test (Casman *et al.*, 1969). Afterwords, Gandhi and Richardson (1971) developed other diffusion assay

methods based on more economy in using reagents, greater specificity, and simplicity in performance. They named it the capillary tube immunological assay. In 1980, Meyer and Palmieri developed and tested a polyvalent Single Radial immunodiffusion (SRD) method, which can be used with a multiple-culturing procedure for screening large numbers of food or other isolates. The technique of electro-immuno-diffusion introduced by Laurell (1966). This was combines the benefits of both electrophoresis and immunodiffusion techniques. The second group includes. Passive Hemagglutination Assay (PHA) (Johnson al., 1967), et and Reversed **Passive** Hemagglutination Assay (RPHA) (Silverman et al., 1968). The latter method can detect enterotoxins in clinical samples or in food without concentration of the extracted enterotoxin; since the extraction of the enterotoxins from foods is laborious and time consuming (Genigeorgis and Kuo, 1976). This method shows occasionally nonspecific agglutination reactions with certain types of food, so Saloman and Tew (1968) replaced red blood cells with polystyrene latex particles, and called it Latex agglutination assay. Furthermore, Shingaki et al. (1981) improved the test using highly purified anti-enterotoxins affinity prepared by chromatography, and called it Reversed Passive Latex Agglutination test (RPLA). The commercial kits become

widely used, and show high specificity and sensitivity with a detection limit as minimum as 0.75 ng enterotoxin per gram of food. The disability of the kits for detection of SEE, SEH, SEG and SEI does not create a great problem as they seldom occur (Wieneke, 1988). Also, about 5% of food-borne staphylococcal outbreak are caused by SEE, SEH, SEG and SEI and unidentified SEs (Su and Wong, 1995). Therefore, the RPLA test still the best.

2. The third group includes methods that use some material (such as dyes, radioactive elements, and enzymes) to label antibody molecules. However, Coons and Kaplan (1950) were the first to show that antibody molecules could be labeled by conjugation with fluorescent dye, and then used the labeled antibody to detect a specific antigen in cells. The labeled antibody under ultraviolet light emitted a yellow-green fluorescent that could be viewed in a specially constructed microscope. Radio-immuno -assay test (RIA), also detects a specific antigen radioactive iodine (I125) rather than fluorescein (Niskanen and Lindroth, 1976b). This method detects enterotoxins in clinical samples or in food (Orth, 1977), and can be made within one working day once the labeled enterotoxins are available (Miller et al., 1978). Enzyme-Linked Immuno-Sorbent Assay (ELISA) Freed et al., 1982 and Meyer et al., (1984) used the enzyme immunoassay, which was

developed for detection of SEs in foods. The ELISA can be completed as quickly as the RIA. It is sensitive but does not require the use of radioactive material. Two types of ELISA methods have been proposed. In the "double-antibody sandwich" method, the enzyme is coupled to the specific antibody, whereas in the second method, the enzyme is coupled to the enterotoxin (Christensson *et al.*, 1984).

1.5.6.4 Molecular Methods

Several modern molecular and genetically developed techniques have been used to identify staphylococci, and to characterize strains in epidemiological studies, and in outbreaks of unusual or multiresistant strains. These methods include:

- 1- Whole-cell protein using SDS-Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (PAGE) (Sugai *et al.*, 1990).
- 2- Restriction enzyme fragment length polymorphism analysis of plasmid, ribosomal, and chromosomal nucleic acids (Prescott *et al.*, 1990).
- 3- Pulsed-inversion Gel Electrophoresis of total DNA (PIGE) (Tenover *et al.*, 1994), and Pulsed-field Gel Electrophoresis (PFGE) (Khambaty *et al.*, 1994)
- 4- Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR), and more newcomers, and quick display will be about the latest technique.

Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR).

The PCR is the most far-reaching development in molecular techniques during the last decade (Smith, 1996). The PCR was first patented in 1987 and then was commercialized in 1988 by American Cetus Corporation. The PCR procedures involve denaturation, annealing and extension using DNA polymerase. The completion of these three processing steps comprises a cycle and can be done in automated thermal cyclers (PCR machines). The three processing steps start by heating the double-stranded DNA at 95-98°C in order to separate them into two single strands. The synthetic oligonucleotide primers then bind to their complementary sequence and are extended in by DNA polymerase in the presence of all four deoxynucleoside triphosphates, giving a new strand of DNA that is identical to the template's original partner (Wilson *et al.*, 1991).

These methods have gained widespread popularity as highly discriminatory and relatively inexpensive methods for epidemiologic typing of strains.

1.6 Sanitation in food handling

1.6.1 Food handlers

The WHO used the "food-handling personnel" term to identify those who may come into contact with part or all of an edible end product at any stage from its source (WHO, 1989). This includes an inspector who, in his routine work, comes into direct

contact with the food itself. This is in general, but a distinction has been made between those whose work could allow transferring pathogenic organisms from themselves to food in such a way that illness might result (Cruickshank, 1990), in addition to those for whom such risks does not exist. Those who possibly present a risk can be defined as food handlers and include those whose work involves touching unwrapped foods to be consumed raw or without further cooking or other forms of treatment, i.e., people involved in such activities as the preparation of salads, sandwiches, and cook food (WHO, 1989).

1.6.2 Food handlers as source of S. aureus

Food handlers play a significant role in ensuring food safety throughout the chain of food production. Mishandling and disregard of hygienic measures on their part may enable pathogens to come into contact with food (Bidawid *et al.*, 2000), and such pathogens may survive and multiply in the food and subsequently cause disease.

The human nose, hand and skin are the main habitats of *S.aureus*. They reside in the mucous membranes of the nose, and they can penetrate into the deeper layers of the skin, where they live in the pores and hair follicles and multiply. Nasal secretions contain large numbers of bacteria including large proportion of staphylococci. Around 30-50% of humans carry staphylococci in their nose. Whereas, in patients the nasal carriage may be as high as 60-80% (Hobbs and Roberts 1990).

Food handler's hands carry the major responsibility in transferring pathogens to food. The habits of fingering (picking)the nose and spitting on the ground will also increase the hazard of passing the staphylococci from the food handler's hands to food. The pus from skin lesions, i.e., carbuncles, septic cuts and burns contains innumerable organisms, and a small speck of pus could inoculate food with millions of staphylococci. The manner of spreading of staphylococci from human reservoir to food is suggested in Fig.2.

In many incidents of staphylococcal intoxication, the same phage typing and enterotoxin-producing types of *S. aureus* were isolated from both food handlers and implicated food (Hobbs and Roberts, 1990), (Bidawid *et al.*, 2000).

More often, the food handlers become either infected due to frequent contact with contaminated raw foods, tasting or eating leftover contaminated food, so that they are victims too.

1.6.3 Rice dishes

Nowadays, rice dishes become one of the everyday dishes of the Saudi's family. In restaurants it is regarded as the primary dish of the menu. Many reasons could be responsible for their popularity include:

- It is easy to cook and eat
- It is light in digestion
- It is delicious

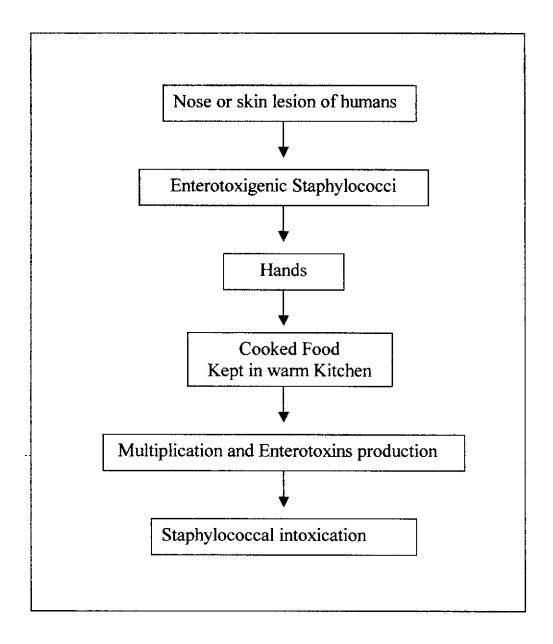


Fig. (2): Spreading of staphylococci from human reservoir to food

In the past, Saudis were depending on bread as a major staple of carbohydrate, while at present they called rice dishes as the king of the menu (main course dish). In many dishes, rice is one of the secondary ingredients, i.e., mahshy. On the other hand, it can be one of the primer ingredients of the meal with either white or red meat (fish and birds or lamb, beef and camel respectively). In Saudi Arabia there are many popular meat and rice dishes presented in Table (3)

1.6.3.1 Distribution system

Today, retailing of cooked food covers many different outlets, which range from the tiny corner-cafeteria to large restaurants. The cooked rice is usually kept at temperature not less than 62°C in hot cabinets or in the pot used in cooking process over mild source of heating. The cooked foods act as vehicles of intoxication when the pot or the hot cabinets were held at inappropriate temperature. Therefore, they may serve as incubator, and encourage the growth of microorganisms; especially when they receive much handling during preparation and distribution. Thus, the purchaser may obtain food already contaminated with microorganisms. Also, further helding and storage at wrong warm temperature will enhance bacterial multiplication to levels resulting in food poisoning.

1.6.3.2 <u>Left-over and it's relation to incidences of intoxication</u>

In normal time in domestic kitchens, it is easy to arrange for preparation and cooking so that a meal can be served directly hot. However, during high seasons, i.e., (Hajj) when large numbers of people need to be fed in a short period of time; It is often expected to prepare foods hours before it is needed. So that the cooked foods are held and placed in a warm-holding apparatus at temperature of at least 63°C, or stored below 10°C, and maintained at these temperatures until needed.

The number of outbreaks of food poisoning will significantly increase with foods that were left for long time at ambient temperature. Nevertheless, when the left over from previous batches is served at first and held in hot-holding equipment and not preheated by the addition of hot gravy or sauce (Hobbs and Roberts, 1990).

Table (3): The famous rice dishes in Saudi Arabia

| No. | Rice Meal | Ingredients |
|-----|-----------|--|
| 1 | Rozabyad | Boiled rice without any additives |
| 2 | Saleq | Meat with rice and milk |
| 3 | Madeny | Meat, rice, sprinkled raisin, Pine and almonds |
| 4 | Arabi | Meat, rice, and Butter (Baladi Ghee) |
| 5 | Kably | Meat marinated in paste of garlic, chopped onions, spices, and saffron with kady flavor (Pandanus tectorus) |
| 6 | Rozoadas | Lentils with rice served with fried dry fish |
| 7 | Sayadah | Rice with Cinnamon served with cooked Fish |
| 8 | Rozohomus | Meat with rice mixed with splet checpeas |
| 9 | Burriany | Same as Kably Ingredients with tomato and tomato paste and different spices |
| 10 | Mandy | Meat cooked in clay oven and rice cooked in separate pot located underneath the meat so that the released fat and juices sip into the rice pot. Sometimes, turmeric may be added |
| 11 | Haneez | Same as Mandy with only one difference, which is the adding of markh (Alyssum homalocarpum) as flavor enhancer |
| 12 | Bokhary | Meat marinated in paste with tomato and tomato paste, garlic, chopped onions, and different spices with chopped carrots and raisins |
| 13 | Koze | The same as Bokhary but, with added macaroni and different spices |
| 14 | Madoghott | Same as Bokhary but with the use of pressure pots scientifically, it sterilizlized |

Materials and Methods

2.1 Specimens, sampling, media, and culture conditions

2.1.1 Food handlers specimens

Clinical specimens were collected since 1999 from foodhandlers of different nationalities, who applied to work in hospital-located kitchens in Makkah. The specimens, which included: nasal swabs, throat swabs, nail swabs, stool samples and wound swabs were examined for presence of *Staphylococcus aureus*. Ready-made Amie's medium was used to transport these specimens to the laboratory within five hours. These specimens were sub-cultured directly on 5% sheep blood agar and mannitol salt agar. Any morphologically suspected colonies of *S. aureus* were examined using coagulase test, and then confirmed by Catalase test, Gram staining, and DNase test. Reversed Passive Latex Agglutination test (RPLA) was used to evaluate the ability of all isolates to produce enterotoxins A, B, C, or D.

2.1.2 Preparation of food

2.1.2.1 Bokhary Rice

There are about half-a dozen most popular variations of the classic Bokhary rice dishes all over Saudi's regions, each one with its own name, ingredients, method of cooking and method of serving (Salah, 1977). It is prepared with lamb or chicken. Meat, chicken or lamb is first marinated for at least 1.5 hrs in a condiment paste of garlic, chopped onions, lemon juice, tomato and tomato

paste, and spices. Then the cleansed washed rice is mixed with the condiment. Chopped carrots, small amount of sugar, and raisins are sprinkled on the top of the pot, which was covered with the lid. Rice and meat mix continue to cook over low heat for more than thirty minutes until well cooked. The meal is then ready to serve (Salah, 1977).

2.1.2.2 Mandy Rice

Mandy is perhaps one of the most elaborate rice dishes. The method of cooking Mandy is known as mandaia. Mandy is the best way of cooking lamb, and the cooked meats are believed to be exceptionally tender. It is cooked with lamb but sometime with chicken. It is prepared using a large clay oven above the ground or in a hole in the ground, which is lined with clay bricks or sometimes; an opened petroleum barrel is used. This method is very popular. Burning wood is placed at the bottom of the hole, and then a large bowl of rice is lowered on top of the firebrand (burning charcoal). A whole lamb is then placed horizontally or vertically on a steel wire mesh (a steely spit) in the oven, (see Fig. 3) and a heavy lid is placed on top to hold the steam from escaping. However, the lid is sometimes covered with sand.

As the lamb slowly cooks in the hot oven it releases fat and extract, which fall into the pot of the rice. After two to three hours of cooking a matter of judgment on the part of the cooker

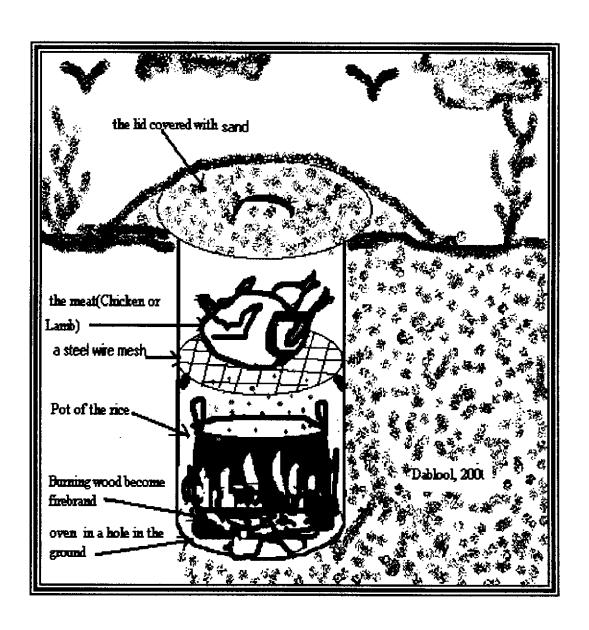


Fig. (3): Underground oven for Mandy.

experience according to meat type and age of the carcass, then the sealed lid is removed and the Mandy is ready to serve.

2.1.3 Sampling of Mandy and Bokhary rice

Rice samples in these experiments were obtained from six different restaurants in Makkah. Restaurants were designated as: R1, R2, R3, R4, R5, and R6. The weight of each sample was approximately 500g. To count the bacteria, which could contaminate the main pot during the day, the total plate counts were done; by using plate count agar and results were obtained after 24 hrs incubation at 35°C, and 55°C. Samples were taken at noon when the restaurants begin to open to the customers to serve lunch and also ten hours later at dinner time. To study the favorable handling and holding conditions encouraging toxins production, autoclaved rice samples were used, and inoculated with the enterotoxigenic strain.

2.1.4Media

Five kinds of media were used in this study: Transport medium, isolating media, DNase test medium, enterotoxin production media, and sensitivity test medium (The Oxoid Manual, 1982).

1) Transport medium:

The specimens were obtained using sterile swabs supplemented with ready-made transport Amie's medium. It was used to preserve the viability of the bacteria

Table (4): Composition of Amie's medium.

| Component | Gram per liter |
|--------------------------------|----------------|
| Sodium chloride | 3.0 |
| Sodium hydrogen phosphate | 1.5 |
| Potassium dihydrogen phosphate | 0.2 |
| Potassium chloride | 0.2 |
| Sodium thioglycollate | 1.0 |
| Calcium chloride | 0.1 |
| Magnesium chloride | 0.1 |
| Agar No.1 | 4.0 |
| pН | 7.2+/-0.2 |

including S. aureus during transportation. The composition of Amie's medium is given in Table (4).

2) Isolating medium:

Plate count agar medium was used for bacterial total counts (the composition of this medium is given in Table (5), and other three types of media were used to isolates S. aureus from clinical specimens, and food samples. The first medium was 5% sheep blood agar, a non-selective medium (Finegold and Sweeney, 1961). The composition of sheep blood agar medium is given in Table (6). The second one was a mannitol salt agar (Niskanen and Aalto, 1978), which is a differential and selective medium used to isolate S. aureus from faecal specimens (Cheesbrough, 1984). The composition of mannitol salt agar medium is given in Table (7). The Baird-Parker medium was the third one used to isolate S. aureus from food samples (Devriese, 1981) and from clinical specimens (Lachica, 1980). The composition of Baird-Parker medium is given in Table (8). The replacement of Egg Yolk (EY) with Tween 80 and MgCL₂ provides several advantages such as:

- Avoiding EY variability.
- The absence of (EY) reduces the outgrowth of other contaminating bacteria.
- Reduces the cost and handling of the medium during preparation (Lachica, 1984).

Table (5): Composition of Plate Count agar medium.

| Component | Gram per liter |
|---------------|----------------|
| Tryptone | 5 |
| Yeast extract | 2.5 |
| Dextrose | 1 |
| Agar | 9 |
| рН | 7.0+/- 0.2 |
| | |

Table (6): Composition of blood agar base No.2.

| Component | Gram per liter |
|------------------|----------------|
| Protease Peptone | 15.0 |
| Liver Digest | 2.5 |
| Yeast Extract | 5.0 |
| Sodium chloride | 5.0 |
| Agar | 12.0 |
| pH | 7.4-/+0.2 |

5% Sheep blood (sterilized) added

Table (7): Composition of Mannitol Salt Agar medium.

| Component | Gram per liter |
|------------------|----------------|
| Lab-Lemco powder | 1.0 |
| Peptone | 10.0 |
| Mannitol | 10.0 |
| Sodium chloride | 75.0 |
| Phenol red | 0.025 |
| Agar | 15.0 |
| pH. | 7.3 - 7.7 |

Table (8): Composition of Baird- Parker medium.

| Component | Gram per liter | | | |
|--|----------------|--|--|--|
| Lab-Lemco powder | 5.0 | | | |
| Tryptone | 10.0 | | | |
| Yeast Extract | 1.0 | | | |
| Sodium pyruvate | 10.0 | | | |
| Glycine | 12.0 | | | |
| Lithium chloride | 5.0 | | | |
| Agar | 20.0 | | | |
| Tween 80 (modification) | 0.05% | | | |
| MgCl ₂ 6H ₂ O (modification) | 0.1% | | | |
| рН | 6.8-/+0.2 | | | |

Table (9): Composition of DNase medium.

| | Component | Gram per liter |
|--------------|------------|----------------|
| Tryptose | | 20 |
| Deoxyribonue | cleic acid | 2 |
| Sodium chlor | ide | 5 |
| Agar | | 12 |
| pН | | 7.3+/- 0.2 |

Table (10): Composition of Mueller Hinton Agar medium.

| Compound | Gram per liter | | | |
|--------------------|----------------|--|--|--|
| Meat infusion | 6.0 | | | |
| Casein hydrolysate | 17.5 | | | |
| Starch | 1.5 | | | |
| Agar No.1 | 10.0 | | | |
| pH | 7.4 -/+ 0.2 | | | |

3) DNase test medium.

Deoxyribonuclease medium was used to perform DNase test, and the composition is given in Table (9).

4) Sensitivity test medium.

Mueller Hinton Agar is now widely used for sensitivity test. Clear zones of inhibition are evident and could be measured. The composition of Mueller Hinton Agar is given in Table (10).

5) Enterotoxin production media:

Two types of media were used to evaluate the enterotoxigenicity of the isolates. The first one is Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) (Casman and Bennett, 1963). The composition is given in Table (11). The second medium is Tryptone Soy Broth medium (Doorne *et al.*, 1982), and the composition is given in Table (12)

2.1.5 Reagents

Many reagents have been used to identify *S. aureus* in this study including:

Phosphate-Buffered Saline Solution (PBS).

Ten tablets of Phosphate buffered salts (modified Dulbecco's formula, cat. No. 28-103-05,made by Flow Laboratories, U.K) were dissolved in 1000ml distilled water and autoclaved for 10 min at 115°C. The solution was quite free from insoluble matter. The composition of this saline is given in Table (13).

Table (11): Composition of Brain Heart Infusion broth (BHI).

| Component | Gram per liter |
|----------------------------|----------------|
| Calf brain infusion solids | 12.5 |
| Beef heart infusion solids | 5.0 |
| Proteose Peptone | 10.0 |
| Sodium chloride | 5.0 |
| Dextrose | 2.0 |
| Disodium phosphate | 2.5 |
| pH | 7.4 -/+ 0.2 |

Table (12): Composition of Tryptone Soy Broth (TSB).

| Component | Gram per liter |
|-------------------------------|----------------|
| Pancreatic digest of casein | 17.0 |
| Pipaic digest of soybean meal | 3.0 |
| Sodium chloride | 5.0 |
| Dibasic potassium phosphate | 2. |
| Dextrose | 2.5 |
| рН | 7.3-/+0.2 |

Table (13): Composition of Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS).

| Compound | Gram per liter |
|--------------------------------|----------------|
| Sodium chloride | 8.0 |
| Potassium chloride | 0.2 |
| Disodium dihydrogen phosphate | 1.15 |
| Potassium dihydrogen phosphate | 0.2 |
| рН | 7.3 -/+ 0.2 |

Table (14): Composition of 1% Peptone Water.

| Compound | Gram per liter |
|-----------------|----------------|
| Peptone | 10 |
| Sodium chloride | 5 |
| pН | 7.2 -/+ 0.2 |

Table (15): Composition of REMEL's rabbit plasma.

| Compound | Per one liter |
|-------------------------------------|---------------|
| Sodium chloride (CAS7647-14-5) | 4.5g |
| Rabbit plasma w/EDTA | 500ml |
| Demineralized water (CAS 7732-18-5) | 500ml |

Peptone Water (diluent solution).

To make serial dilutions for total bacterial counts, the samples were homogenized in 1% peptone water (Rodriguez *et al.*, 1996) see Table (14).

• Egg Yolk-Tellurite Emulsion (Oxoid SR54).

Fifty ml of the emulsion was added to 1 liter of Baird-Parker medium CM275. The 50 ml of the emulsion contain the equivalent of 3ml of 3.5% potassium Tellurite, (i.e., concentration in SR54 is 0.21% w/v). It is advisable to wait for few seconds to allow the insoluble particles to settle before addition to the medium. The prepared Petri dishes can be stored in refrigerator, to be used for a maximum period of 7-10 days (The Oxoid Manual, 1982).

Coagulase Plasma.

The REMEL's rabbit plasma is dissolved in Ethylene Diamine Tetra Acetic acid (EDTA) as recommended by the manufacturer. The formula of this reagent is shown in Table (15). The kit contains 6 bottles of the lyophilized coagulase plasma.

Staphaurex.

The Staphaurex reagent consists of polystyrene latex particles, which have been coated with fibrinogen and IgG. The kit contains three bottles of the test latex suspension, disposable reaction cards, and disposable sampling and mixing

sticks. Each bottle of the latex test contains a minimum amount of 1.7 ml of the reagent.

• Hydrogen Peroxide 3% (V/V)(H₂O₂).

Hydrogen Peroxide solution (N. Avondale Laboratories Limited. England) was prepared. The reagent was Shaked before use. This will help to expel any dissolved oxygen, which may give false results.

• DNase reagent (Hydrochloric acid, 1 N).

The *S. aureus* colonies were tested for DNase production by flooding the plate of DNase medium with 1 N hydrochloric acid solution. To make 100 ml stock solution, fill half of a 100ml volumetric flask with distilled water, add 8.6ml of concentrated hydrochloric acid, make up to the 100ml volume mark with distilled water, transfered to labeled bottle, and stored at room temperature.

Oxidase reagent.

The Oxidase reagent was prepared fresh before use, since it is not stable. 100mg of Tetramethyl-p phenylenediamine was dissolved in 10 ml distilled water (Cheesbrough, 1984).

2.1.6 Culture purification and maintenance

The cultures were checked for purity, by subculturing several times on selective medium, i.e., Baird-Parker medium. The streaking method was used to produce good spacing between colonies. One colony was picked, and inoculated into 1% peptone water (diluent). Three dilutions were made. Then 1ml was spread on Baird-Parker medium, incubated at 37 °C for 24h. Colonies were checked morphologically and microscopically for purity.

All identification tests were re-checked, and finally, subcultured on nutrient slants. After incubation, slants were stored in a refrigerator, and transfered every two weeks. However, for long-term preservation, all isolates were stored at -20°C sterilized glycerol (Cheesbrough, 1984).

2.2 Morphological studies

2.2.1 Morphological and pigmentation studies of colonies.

Colony morphology and pigmentation was observed on 5% sheep blood agar, Baird-Parker medium (Hoover *et al.*, 1983) and DNase test medium (Devriese and Hajek, 1980).

2.2.2 Haemolysis

All isolates were grown on blood agar plates containing 5% sheep blood and checked for any haemolysis (Hoover *et al.*, 1983). Streaked cultures were examined after 24h of incubation at 37 °C. The term α , β , γ , and δ haemolysis should not be used with *Staphylococcus* (Devriese and Hajek, 1980). Because, any sign of haemolysis is regarded as positive result.

2.2.3 Gram stain

Smears for Gram stain were prepared from 24 hr cultures (Freney et al., 1999). Hucker's modification method was used and the smears were examined for cell morphology, staining properties, and aggregation patterns (Pelczar et al., 1957).

2.2.4 Motility

Cultures grown on solid media were examined for motility test using the hanging drop technique, and observed with a bright field microscope with oil immersion lens (Freney *et al.*, 1999).

2.3 Biochemical Studies

2.3.1 Catalase test

According to Bergey's Manual of Bacteriology 9th edition (Holt *et al.*, 1994) the *Genus* Staphylococcus is differentiated from the *Genus* Streptococcus by the presence of catalase enzyme. The latter converts hydrogen peroxide to water and nacent oxygen (Jensen and Hyde, 1963). To determine whether catalase is produced or not, Place few drops of 3% hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), on a slide and with a wooden applicator stick, pick only the top of the colony carefully in order to avoid carryover of blood, from the medium which may give false-positive reaction (Freney *et al.*, 1999). Any bubbling is recorded as positive catalase reaction (Martin *et al.*, 1976).

2.3.2 Coagulase test

Slide and tube coagulase tests have been employed to distinguish *S. aureus* from other species of *Staphylococcus* (Jungkind *et al.*, 1984). For many years, the tube coagulase test which detects the production of free coagulase was considered the "gold standard" (Luijendijk *et al.*, 1996). However, the limitation of this method have been addressed in various reports (Baker *et al.*, 1985). Neverthless, rapid slide agglutination test, that described by Essers and Radebold (1980) has been used. It is a modification of the slide coagulase test, and has the advantage of identifying *S.aureus* immediately instead of after a period ranging from 4 to 24 hrs with tube Coagulase test (Jungkind *et al.*, 1984).

• The rapid slide agglutination test

The test was performed according to the procedure recommended by Murex Biotech (manufacturer). The latex bottle was first shaken to obtain an even suspension. One drop of the latex reagent was placed into a circle on the reaction card for each culture to be tested, then one colony was picked up using the disposable wooden stick (a colony was touched with the flat end of the stick). However, it was mixed with the dispensed drop of the latex reagent. The card was then rotated gently by hand for up to twenty seconds. A positive result was indicated by the development of an agglutination pattern.

In case of any uncertain results occurred; the culture needs to be confirmed by the tube coagulase, because some strains defficient in clumping factor usually produce free Coagulase (Rhoden and Miller, 1995).

• The tube Coagulase test

This test was performed according to the procedure recommended by the manufacturer. It includes resuspension of the lyophilized coagulase plasma with sterile distilled water according to the volume size indicated on the vial. 0.5ml of the prepared plasma was added to test tube. Then a large loopful of purified colony grown on agar plate was inoculated into the tube. The tube was vortexed thoroughly to suspend the cells. Later, the tube was incubated at 35-37°C for up to 24 hrs, and observed every 30 minutes. Any visible clot observed could be considered as positive result. (The test should not be performed from media having a high salt content e.g., mannitol salt agar)

2.3.3 Oxidase test

Oxidase activity is estimated by dropping 1% tetramethyl-p-phenylenediamine dihydrochloride on a piece of whatman filter paper No.2 in a Petri dish, and a loopful of culture was picked and smeared over a small area of the filter paper (Benson, 1994). A blue-violet color, which appears within few seconds, is considered as a positive result. All *Staphylococcus* species are oxidase-negative

except for strains of S. caseolyticus, S. sciuri, S. lentus, and S. vitulus (Koneman et al., 1997).

2.3.4 DNase test

This test is used to differentiate *S. aureus*, which produces the enzyme Deoxyribonuclease (DNase) from other staphylococci that do not produce it (Hoover *et al.*, 1983). The composition of this medium is shown in Table (9). The test organism was cultured on a DNase medium. After overnight incubation the plate was flooded with normal hydrochloric acid. Within 5 minutes, DNase producing colonies were surrounded by clear area and formed a cloudy precipitate containing nucleotide fractions, which indicate DNA hydrolysis (Cheesbrough, 1984).

2.4 Sensitivity test

The recommended medium in this test is Mueller Hinton agar, and Kirby-Bauer test method was used (Benson, 1994).

In this study, the control strain (*S. aureus* ATCC-25923) was inoculated on a separate Petri plate medium, so that the results are comparable. The inoculation of the medium's surface with the test organism was made with a cotton swab from broth culture standardized to 0.5 MacFarland. The turbidity of standard 0.5 MacFarland is equivalent to an overnight incubation of one colony in the broth culture medium.

Multi-disks antibiotics (previously warmed to room temperature) were place on inoculated medium by sterile forceps

Table (16): The limits of inhibition zones for Gram (+) Bacteria

| | | | | Zone diameter (mm) | | | |
|------------------------|------------------|-----------------|------------|--------------------|------------|-----|--|
| Antimicrobial Agent | Abrevi- ation | Disk potency | Disk color | R* | MS* | HS* | |
| Cephalothin | KF | 30 µg | Primrose | <14 | 15-12 | >18 | |
| Clindamycin | CD | 2 μg | White | <14 | 15-20 | >16 | |
| Oxacillin | OX | 5 μg | White | <10 | 11-12 | >13 | |
| Cotrimoxazole | TS | 25 μg | White | <10 | 11-15 | >16 | |
| Erythromycin | E | 15 μg | Red | <13 | 14-22 | >23 | |
| Gentamicin | GM | 10 μg | Salmon | <12 | 13-14 | >15 | |
| Oxytetracycline | OT | 30 μg | Brown | <14 | 15-18 | >19 | |
| Penicillin G | PG | 10units | Pink | <28 | ' - | >29 | |

^{* (}R) Resistant, (MS) Mild sensitive, (HS) High sensitive.

and each disk was pressed slightly to ensure close contact with the medium. The Plate was then incubated aerobically overnight at 37°C. Therefore, the radius of the inhibition zones was measured (to the nearest millimeter) from the edge of the disk to the edge of the inhibition zone.

Size of inhibition zones of all isolates were compared with the size of the inhibition zones for *S. aureus* (ATCC-25923), which is close to the standard zones given in Table (16), which was supplied with the disks kit from Mast Group Ltd.

2.5 Bacterial load of cooked rice during holding time

Standard plate count method was used. Twenty-five grams from rice sample was diluted with 225ml of 1% pepton water (1/10 dilution). Other dilutions were made to obtain colony counts ranging between 30 and 300 colonies (Raj and Liston, 1961).

2.6 Growth curve determination

The growth curve was determined by measuring the turbidity of the bacterial population using Brain Heart Infusion broth (BHI). This method measures the biomass, which could be correlated with density (Harley and Prescott, 1990). This indirect method uses spectrophotometric measurements of the developing turbidity, by employing samples of the test culture taken at one hr interval to serve as an index of increased cellular mass. The generation time (g) was calculated using the following equation:

$$g = \frac{0.301t}{\log_{10} N_t - \log_{10} N_0}$$

Where N_0 is the number of bacteria at point (a) or any other point at the beginning of the log phase, N_t is the number of bacteria at point (b) or any other point near the end of the log phase, t is the time in minutes between (b) and (a).

2.7 Enterotoxins studies

2.7.1 Enterotoxin production in culture medium

Each isolate of *Staphylococcus aureus* was cultured individually in Brain Heart Infusion broth (BHI), and incubated at 37°C for 18-20 hrs. Thereafter, the culture was centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 20 minutes, and the supernatant was used in the test (Manufacturer method).

2.7.2 Enterotoxin production in food

A selected isolate was inoculated in Tryptic Soy broth, and incubated at 35°C for 48h. The culture was then centrifuged at 3000rpm for 20 minutes washed twice with Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), resuspended in saline, and adjusted to about 10⁶cells/ml using a spectrophotometer (LKB Ultrospec 4050 No. 40003511. Biochrom. Cambridge) at 600nm. Ten ml of bacterial cell suspension was inoculated into specimens rice (100g of autoclaved ready-made Mandy rice or Bokhary rice) and incubated

at both 25°C and 40°C (the temperature of the incubation was recorded by an automatic recording thermometer, model: No.515P, 7days, Pacific Transducer Corp. USA). Mandy or Bokhary rice was sampled every hour, until the toxin presence was detected using RPLA technique (see section 2.7.4). Baird-Park agar was used for *S. aureus* counts. This is the method of Park and Szabo (1986).

2.7.3 Food samples preparation for RPLA

Two methods were used for the food sample preparation:

1-The Denka Seiken Co Ltd., Tokyo kit procedure, which includes blending of 10g of the food sample with 90mL of Phosphate-Buffered Saline (PBS) for homogenization using Stomacher (Seward Medical UAC House, London, U.K.), followed by centrifugation at 3000 rpm for 20 minutes. The supernatant was used for enterotoxin detection.

2- Procedure of Park and Szabo (1986)

This method includes blending of one volume of the food sample in two volume of (PBS). The food was homogenized using Stomacher and was kept for 10 min at room temperature. Then, samples were centrifuged at 4000 rpm at 4°C for 60 min (IEC Centra MP4R, Refrigerant type HP-80 by International Equipment Company, USA). The supernatant was used for enterotoxin detection.

2.7.4 RPLA test in liquid culture

The kits were obtained from Denka Seiken Co Ltd., Tokyo. The contents include four vials of control lyophilized, purified staphylococcal enterotoxins A, B, C and D (each vial contains 0.5ml), four vials of a suspension of latex particles sensitized with the corresponding anti-enterotoxins, a control latex solution, and two vials of 50mL diluent solution.

The test was performed by the procedure recommended by the manufacturer as follows.

- i. 25µl Diluent was placed into each of the five rows of microtiter wells of the microplate (V-type).
- ii. 25μl of the sample (food or culture) was added to the first
 well of each of the five rows and mixed thoroughly.
- iii. Serial twofold dilutions were made by transferring 25μl of the mixture from the first well to adjacent well and repeated until the last well of the row.
- iv. The reagents of the latex particles sensitized with antienterotoxins A, B, C, D and the Control latex were shaken, and 25µl of sensitized latex anti-A was placed to all wells in the first row, 25µl of sensitized latex anti-B was placed to all wells in the second row, and the same procedures were repeated with anti-C, anti-D, and Control latex to the wells of the third, forth, and fifth row, respectively.

- v. The microplate was shaken by hand in circular manner.

 Then covered with Para-film to avoid evaporation of the solutions in the wells or kept in a moisture box, and left at room temperature for 18-20 hours.
- vi. After incubation period, the microplate wells were observed to see whether agglutination (Fig.4) occurred or not by looking from above the microplate and against a black background. Fig.5 shows all different type of negative or positive results that observed using RPLA method.

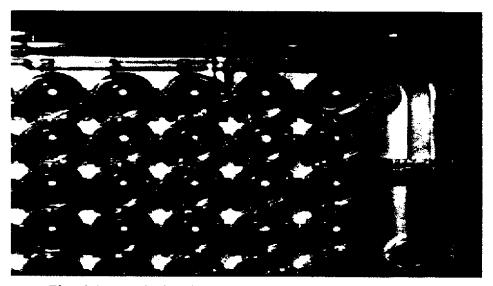


Fig. (4): Agglutination patterns of the RPLA test

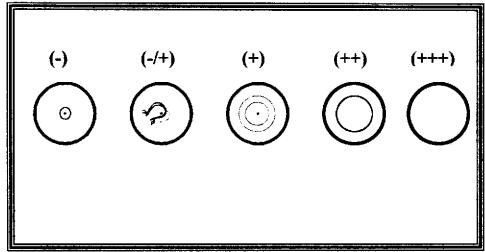


Fig. (5): Agglutination patterns of the RPLA test result

Results and Discussion

3.1 Food handlers specimens

3.1.1 Collection of specimens

A total of 1516 clinical specimens were collected from 428 foodhandlers of different nationalities, who apply to work in hospital-located kitchens in Makkah. These specimens represent 428 nasal swabs, 428 throat swabs, 428 nail swabs, 228 stool samples and 4 wounds swabs. Stool samples and wound swabs were taken if available. Food handlers were divided into two major groups; Arabs, and Asians to facilitate analysis and interpretation:

The Arab food handlers group included the worker from Saudi Arabia and Egypt While; the Asians were from Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, and Serilanka. Table 17 shows that the total numbers of Arab foodhandlers were 45. This represent 11% of the total number of workers whereas, Asians were 383, which represent 89%. It was also observed that the total numbers of male food handlers were the majority amongst the total number of workers 428, also amongst the Arabs and Asians 40 (9.3%), 342 (79.9%) respectively. This may be due to traditional social customs. On the other hand, the proportions of the females amongst the Arabs and Asians were almost the same, i.e., 11.1%, 10.7 % respectively. The distribution of food handlers that were examined according to their nationalities and sex are shown in Fig.6.

Table (17): Distribution of examined foodhandlers at selected Makkah's hospitals.

| Total | Asians | Arabs | , in the second | Nationality |
|---------|--------|--------|---|---------------|
| 428 | 383 | 45 | Total | Food h |
| 100% | 89.5 % | 10.5% | Percentage | Food handlers |
| 382 | 342 | 40 | Total | 7 |
| 89.25% | 79.9% | 9.35% | Percentage | Males |
| 46 | 4 | 5 | Total | Fe |
| 10.75 % | 9.65% | 1.17 % | Percentage | Females |

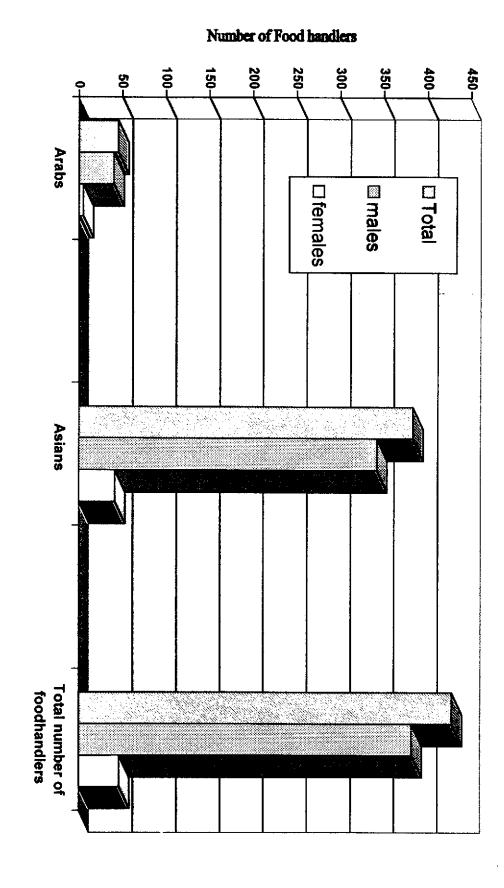


Fig. 6: Distribution of Food handlers examined according to their nationalities and sex.

3.1.2 <u>Isolation and characterization of S. aureus</u>

All specimens were sub-cultured directly on blood agar and mannitol salt agar plates. These were incubated for twenty-four hours at 37°C. However, the temperature of incubation was monitored using a 7days recording chart thermometer. Fig.7 showed that the temperature was stable all time. Colonies observed on Blood agar (Fig.8), Mannitol salt agar (Fig.9), and Baird Parker agar (Fig.10) were morphologically investigated. Any 1.5-2.5mm round, smooth, raised, glistering colonies and usually opaque producing pigments that vary from white to cream, on the Blood agar, or yellow to orange on Mannitol salt agar were designated as *S.aureus*. Nevertheless, all colonies appear to be *S.aureus* were tested for coagulase (see section 2.3.2.) were showed in Fig.11.

On the other hand, any sign of haemolysis is regarded as positive result because the term α , β , γ , and δ haemolysis should not be used with genus *Staphylococcus* (Devriese and Hajek, 1980). Also the use of the mannitol and the acid production, which change the color of the Mannitol salt agar media to yellow, confirmed that colonies are belonging to *Staphylococcus aureus* (Fig.9). The colonies confirmed to be coagulase positive were subjected to further tests such as; Catalase test (Fig.13), Gram staining, DNase test (Fig.12), and Oxidase test (Fig.14).

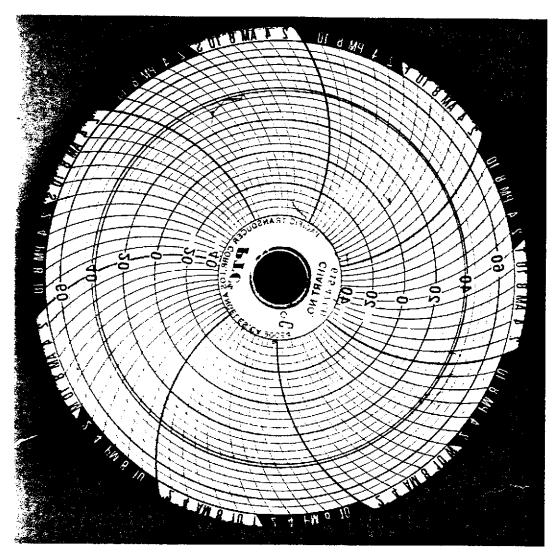


Fig. 7: Chart recorder of incubator temperature during 7days



Fig.8 Typical colonies of S.aureus on Blood agar plates



Fig.9: S. aureus on Mannitol Salt agar a: +ve and b: -ve reaction



Fig. 10: Typical colonies of S.aureus on modified Baird Parker

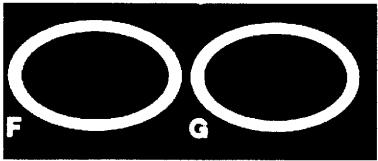


Fig.11: Coagulase test F: positive reaction, G: negative reaction

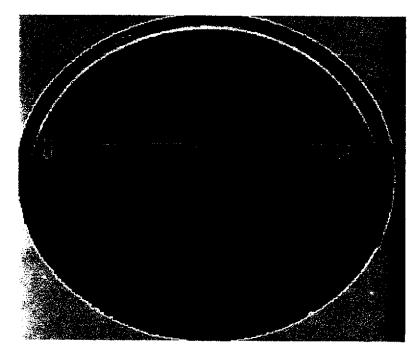


Fig.12: DNase Test: a positive and b: negative results.

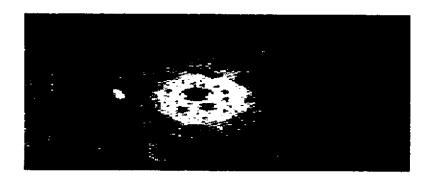


Fig.13: Positive reaction of Catalase test

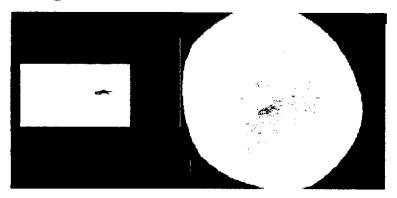


Fig.14: Oxidase test a: positive and b: negative reaction

Of 1516 clinical specimens, 129 Staphylococcus aureus isolates were catalase positive, coagulase positive, DNase positive. These isolates belong to thirty-eight Arabs and Asians food handlers. This is in agreement with those obtained by Soares et al (1997) who reported that from 10-50 % of the human populations are healthy carriers of S. aureus. On the other hand, Al- Bustan et al., (1996) found that 26.6 % of 500 workers studied were screened for nasal carriage of S. aureus.

3.1.3 Enterotoxigenicity of the isolates

Of 129 isolates of *S. aureus* 45 (35 %) were found to produce enterotoxins A, B, C and D singly or in pairs, when evaluated by Reversed Passive Latex Agglutination test (RPLA). The SET-RPLA instructions were followed with slight modifications, i.e., incubation period for only overnight, which was sufficient according to the method of Wieneke (1991).

The incidence of enterotoxins A, B, C, and D production in isolates of *S. aureus* is presented in Table 18. Enterotoxins were shown to be produced by 35% of the isolates obtained from 29% of the total working food handlers who look healthy. These results are in agreement with those obtained by Hajek, (1978) who reported that 38% of strains were obtained from healthy persons, but Casman *et al* (1967) found that SEs produced by 50% of *S. aureus* strains isolated from clinical specimens, obtained from both

Table (18): Number of isolates producing enterotoxins according to source

| Source of isolates | NO. of isolates | Enterotoxins produced according to source | | | | | | |
|--------------------|-----------------|---|---|----|---|-----|-----|-----|
| isolates | enterotoxins | A | В | С | D | A,B | A,C | D,C |
| Nasal swabs | 29 | 11 | 1 | 11 | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 |
| Throat swabs | 9 | 2 | - | 5 | - | 1 | 1 | - |
| Nail swabs | 6 | 3 | - | 3 | - | - | - | - |
| Stool samples | 1 | - | - | 1 | - | - | - | - |
| Total | 45 | 16 | 1 | 20 | 1 | 3 | 3 | 1 |

patients and healthy individuals. This figure of 35% may be on the lower side of the scale, as other enterotoxins SEE, SHE, SEG and SEI were omitted from the study because simple detection method was not readily available. Also coagulase negative staphylococci were not subjected to enterotoxin evaluation, and they may be a potential cause of food poisoning (Udo *et al.*, 1999).

Thirty-eight isolates (29.5%) produced only one enterotoxin; of these 20-produced C (15.5%), 16 strains produced enterotoxin A (12.4%), one produced B (0.7%), and one produced enterotoxin D (0.7%). Isolates that produced one enterotoxin alone were most common, which agreed with the findings of Casman *et al.*, (1967), Payne and Wood, (1974), Roder *et al.*, (1995), and Soares *et al.*, (1997). However, seven isolates (5.4%) produced more than one enterotoxin; 3 isolates produced A and B (2.3%), 3 isolates produced A with C and only one isolate produced C and D.

The predominance of specific enterotoxin types among *S.aureus* isolates from human carriers is variable. Casman *et al.*, (1967) found that SEA and SED occurred most commonly in the strains of S. *aureus* isolated from clinical specimens. In contrast, Reali (1982) found that *S. aureus* strains producing SEB were the most common isolates. Whereas, Melconian *et al.*, (1983) found that 27.7 % of the isolated *S. aureus* produced SEA, 15.3 % produced SEB and 6.2% produced SEC. Similarly, Al-Bustan *et al.*, (1996) found that 28 % produced SEA, 28.5 % produced SEB, 16.4 % produced SEC, and 3.5 % produced SED. While Adesiyun *et al.*, (1986) found that SEA was produced by 32.7% of all

enterotoxigenic strains, while SEC and SED were produced by only 6.8% and 6.3% respectively, of the strains examined. On the contrary Roder *et al.*, (1995) found that enterotoxin B and C were the toxins produced most frequently in both groups, which were isolated from blood cultures of suspected cases and those from healthy carriers. Quite similarly, Soares *et al.*, (1997) found that 50% of the *S. aureus* isolates produced SEC, 23.1 % SEA and 15.4% SEB. The present study, which is the only study until now in Saudi Arabi, found that 15.5 % of the *S. aureus* produced SEC and 12.4 % SEA. So that they were the enterotoxins produced most frequently

A predominance of SEC and SEA- producing *S. aureus* strains among food handlers has been reported by Melconian *et al.*, (1983), Marin *et al.*, (1992), Roder *et al.*, (1995), and Soares *et al.*, (1997) In 1978, Hajek suggested that the source of these enterotoxin C producing strains is unclear and have related enterotoxin C to strains of animal origin. However, the interchange of the staphylococci between animals and man might explain the higher incidence of SEC.

Enterotoxigenicity of *S. aureus* isolates according to the source of the specimen's collection were summarized in Fig.15. Most of enterotoxigenic *S. aureus* were isolated from nose. Nevertheless, twenty-nine strains of total food handlers' harbored enterotoxigenic

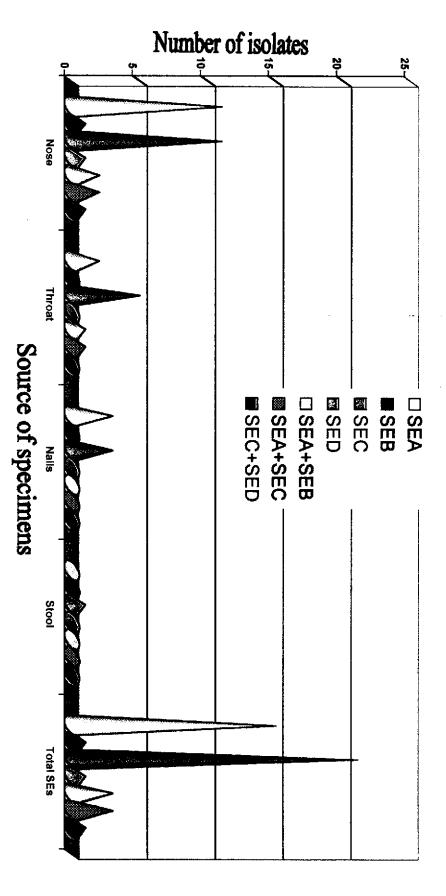


Fig. 15: Enterotoxigenicity of S. aureus isolates according to the source of specimens

Table (19): Carriers food handlers

| Total | Asians | Arabs | Nationality | | |
|-------|--------|----------|-------------|-------------------------------|--|
| 6 | υ | — | Females | Numb | |
| 32 | 29 | 3 | Males | Number of Carriers | |
| 38 | 34 | 4 | Total | ers | |
| 46 | 41 | 5 | Females | To fa | |
| 382 | 342 | 40 | Males | Total number of food handlers | |
| 428 | 383 | 45 | Total | of s | |
| 8.9 % | 8.9 % | 8.8% | Percentage | Total | |

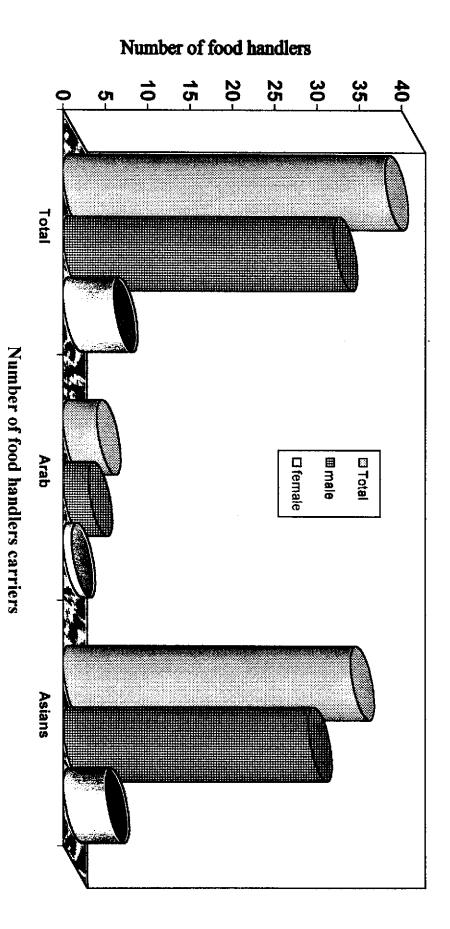


Fig. 16: Carriers food handlers

S. aureus in their anterior naris while nine strains were isolated from throat. Only six isolates were observed in nail specimens. This phenomenon was also reported by Soares et al., (1997). He referred this to implementation of hospital control measures to stop transmission of epidemic bacteria. In this study, it might be related to catering companies' instructions to the food handlers. Because they have signed a contract to operate the kitchens of the hospitals, and to employ healthy food handlers whom have health certificates. Table 18 shows the total number of foodhandlers that subjected in this study and staphylococcal carriers. The total ratio of both Arabs and Asians carriers were quite the same (8.8 and 8.9 respectively). Also the percentage of both males and females were 8.4 and 13% respectively.

Bad habits such as picking nose (fingering the nose), nasal secretions and spiting on the ground increase the ratio of staphylococcal contamination of foods. Also mishandling and disregarding hygienic standards particularly during Hajj seasons when food handlers become under pressure to prepare large quantities of food. In addition, lack of experience and poor hygienic practices cause food contamination. On the other hand, some customers may save their cooked food to be consumed after several hours under unsuitable conditions allowing microbial population particularly staphylococci to multiply. Such delay in consumption without protection will permit enterotoxin production in food. Detection of enterotoxigenic *S. aureus* in cooked food and food handlers is very important in the cases of food poisoning. Because

their presence does not necessarily imply that enterotoxin was produced. Vice versa, the absence of viable staphylococci in food does not mean that toxins are not present.

Humphreys et al., (1989) Roder et al., (1995), Soares et al., (1997), and Krakauer, (1999) suggested that the production of the enterotoxins by S. aureus isolates may also be important in the pathogenesis of infections rather than staphylococcal food poisoning.

Two *S.aureus* isolates that produced SEA and SEC respectively were subjected to further studies such as measuring growth curve in liquid medium and Saudi traditional cooked rice. Also, the determination of minimum detectable amounts of SEs in cooked rice using RPLA, and the study of the effect of different holding temperatures on the production of staphylococcal enterotoxins in Saudi traditional cooked rice were determine later.

3.1.4 Sensitivity test

To observe the differences between these isolates and their susceptibility to some antibiotics, the sensitivity test was performed. The results of the Antimicrobial sensitivity test for 45 *S. aureus* isolates producing enterotoxins are presented in Table 20. The isolates showed different antibiotic resistance patterns (as exampled in Fig. 17). The isolates fall into 7 groups according to their reaction to the antibiotics, so that each group has the same antibiotic resistance pattern. Of the eight Antimicrobial agents used in Kirby-

Table (20): S. aureus isolates classified according to sensitivity reactions

| S.aureus isolates with | Type | Antibiotic | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|---------------|---------------------|------------|-----------------|------------|
| same sensitivity | of | .9 | in | H | e | .8 | ď | 2 | d |
| (Numbered) | SEs | cephalothin | Clindamycin | Oxacillin | Cotrimoxazole | Erythromycin | Gentamicin | Oxytetracycline | Penicillin |
| Group (1) | | 0 | <u> </u> | | <u> </u> | <u> </u> | 0 | 0 | <u> </u> |
| No. 1- 11 | C | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | R |
| 12-25 | A | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | R |
| 26-28 | AB | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | R |
| 29-30 | \mathbf{AC} | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | R |
| 31 | D | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | R |
| 32 | DC | S | S | S | S | S | S | S | R |
| Total: 32 isolates | | | | | | | | | |
| Group (2) | | | | | | | | | |
| No. 33-37 | • | S | S | S | R | S | S | S | R |
| 38 | C | | | | - | | | | т. |
| 39 | AC | S | S | S | R | S | S | S | R |
| Total: 7 isolates | В | S | S | S | R | S | S | S | R |
| Group (3) No.40 | С | R | S | S | R | S | S | S | S |
| Group (4) No.41 | A | S | S | S | S | R | S | S | R |
| Group (5) No.42 | A | S | S | S | S | S | S | R | R |
| 43 | C | S | S | S | S | S | S | R | R |
| Group (6) No.44 | A | R | S | S | S | S | S | S | R |
| | C | | S | S | R | S | S | R | R |

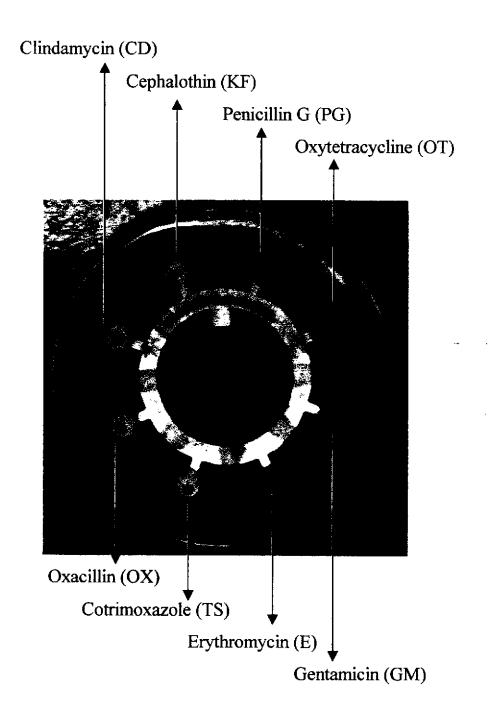


Fig.17: Example of sensitivity test for *S. aureus* using various antibiotics

Bauer method, *S. aureus* enterotoxins producers' isolates were most resistant to Penicillin G (97.8%). This was similar to the results (94%), which reported by Soares *et al.*, (1997). This might be related to the frequent administration of the drug. On the other hand, almost all *S. aureus* enterotoxins producers' isolates were sensitive to Clindamycin, Gentamicin, and Oxacillin. Within this group, 93.3% of the isolates were sensitive to Oxytetracycline (OT), whereas 95.5% of them were sensitive to Cephalothin (KF). Increased resistant (20%) to Cotrimoxazole (TS) was found in the nasal isolates.

An interesting observation is that some isolates from different locations of the body of three food handlers exhibited the same antibiotic resistance patterns (Nasal, Throat, Stool) (Nasal, Throat, Nails) (Nasal, Nails), type C, A, and A respectively. It could be noticed that there are cycles of contamination and cross contamination between these organs. On the other hand, three different isolates from different locations (Nasal, Throat, Nails) of one female food handler had different antibiotic resistance patterns. Which indicate the susceptibility of one person to harbor or be infected with different strains of *S. aureus*.

3.1 Collection of Mandy rice samples

Twenty-four rice samples of Mandy were obtained from six different restaurants in Makkah. Restaurants were chosen randomly and designated as R1, R2, R3, R4, R5, and R6. . Samples were collected from pots at noon, when the restaurants begin to operate, and ten hours later for two days.

95

Table (21): Average temperature of rice samples in pots

| 12:00 pm | Restaurant Time |
|----------|----------------------------------|
| 59.5°C | R1 |
| 78.5°C | R2 |
| 73.5°C | R3 |
| 59.8°C | R4 |
| 66°C | R5 |
| 64°C | R6 |
| | 59.5°C 78.5°C 73.5°C 59.8°C 66°C |

3.2.1 Determination of variability in cooked rice temperature

Determination of variability in rice temperature of specimens during ten hours of incubation in pots were summarized in Table 21. The range of rice temperatures at noon varied between 59.5 to 78.8 °C. However, it was between 47 and 56.5 °C during night. The range of rice temperature drops from twelve to twenty two degrees during night in most restaurants. Nevertheless, R1 and R2 exhibit better results compared with others. The range of rice temperature drops in both restaurants from three to seven degrees only. As shown above, sanitation in most of those restaurants are in compliance with the regulations of WHO. Variation in rice temperatures allows bacterial growth particularly at night (see section 3.2.2). This is one of the most factors contributing to outbreak of staphylococcal food poisoning (Hobbs and Roberts, 1990).

Two samples from restaurants R1 and R4 respectively, which have been taken at 12:00 am had relatively low temperatures; this could be due to inadequate preheating or reheating of left over rice. Because most of the fresh cooked rice temperatures were higher than 60 °C even if more than one hour has already been passed after cooking.

3.2.2 Bacterial total count

Standard plate counts were made for samples that were taken from the large cooking pots when opened soon after cooking (12:00 am) and also after ten hours of serving (10:00 pm). This can

demonstrate how effective is the holding conditions on increasing the contaminating bacterial numbers.

From the results presented in Table 22 it appears that sanitary qualities were best at noon, when the pots were not opened too much and the temperatures were relatively high. However, it may indicate insanitary handling, or unfavorable holding temperatures the same in samples 4, and 13, which have been taken at 12:00 am. On the other hand, it is necessary to avoid the wrong interpretation of low plate counts, since it is possible for the cupidity cooker to preheat or reheat the Left-over by addition of hot gravy or sauce which can kill the vegetative cell but not destroy the enterotoxins, and this could be noticed in Restaurant 1 and 4 in samples 4, and 13, because the samples have been taken at 12:00 am. However, the relation of the Left- over food and incidences has been reported in many cases as been reported by Hobbs and Roberts (1990).

However, 73.8 % of the total samples showed no growth, and 29.2 % contain between 2- 10×10^5 cell/gm. This is lower than the results obtained by Jaad, (1997) who found that 67% of samples were rejected because they contain more than 0.1×10^6 cell/gm, and higher than the results obtained by Ghazoli, (1994) who reported that 2.3% of samples were rejected. The type of the rice and the difference of total number and various kinds of dishes presented by restaurants could explain the variation of the results. The restaurant that sells only one type of food may concentrate more than that

Table 22. The Bacterial total count (CFU/gm) of Mandy rice samples

| Restaurant | Sampling at | ng at Rice Temp. CFU at 37°C | | CFU at 55°C | |
|------------|-------------|------------------------------|--------|-------------|--|
| R1 | 12pm | 52℃ | 30 | 0 | |
| R1 | 10pm | 57℃ | Nil | Nil | |
| RI | 12pm | 67°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R1 | 10pm | 56℃ | Nil | Nil | |
| R2 | 12pm | 82°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R2 | 10pm | 55°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R2 | 12pm | 75°C | Nil | Nil - | |
| R2 | 10pm | 57℃ | Nil | Nil | |
| R3 | 12pm | 78°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R3 | 10pm | 51℃ | 10 | 2000 | |
| R3 | 12pm | 69°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R3 | 10pm | 55°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R4 | 12am | 50°C | 20 | 4000 | |
| R4 | 10pm | 50℃ | 10 | 0 | |
| R4 | 12pm | 67°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R4 | 10pm | 56℃ | Nil | Nil | |
| R5 | 10pm | 65°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R5 | 10pm | 52°C | 10 | 0 | |
| R5 | 12pm | 67°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R5 | 10pm | 57℃ | Nil | Nil | |
| R6 | 12pm | 59°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R6 | 10pm | 45°C | 200000 | 15000 | |
| R6 | 12pm | 69°C | Nil | Nil | |
| R6 | 10pm | 49℃ | 600 | 10000 | |

presents different kinds of dishes in many respects relating to efforts concerning preparation and sanitation

3.2.3 pH of The rice samples

Aside from temperature, the hydrogen ion concentration of the rice exerts a limited influence on the growth of *S. aureus* since it can grow in a wide rang of pH (Genigeorgis and Sadler, 1966). However, the average of the pH of the rice samples were: 4.7 for Bokhary rice and for Mandy rice is 5.5. It seems from the results that the average of Bokhary rice was relatively lower than the average of Mandy rice.

3.2 S. aureus enterotoxigenicity studies on rice

3.3.2 The selected cultures

Enterotoxins C and A, showed the highest percentage in the foodhandlers specimens. So, two isolates each forming only one enterotoxin were chosen. They have been subjected to further studies: such as growth cycle in the medium and in the cooked rice, the effect of the holding temperature on the production of SEA and SEC

3.3. 2 Growth curve of S. aureus in synthetic medium

The growth curves of the chosen two isolates, which produced either SEA or SEC, are shown in Fig 18. The generation time for SEA producing isolate was 37.1 min. Enterotoxin A was first

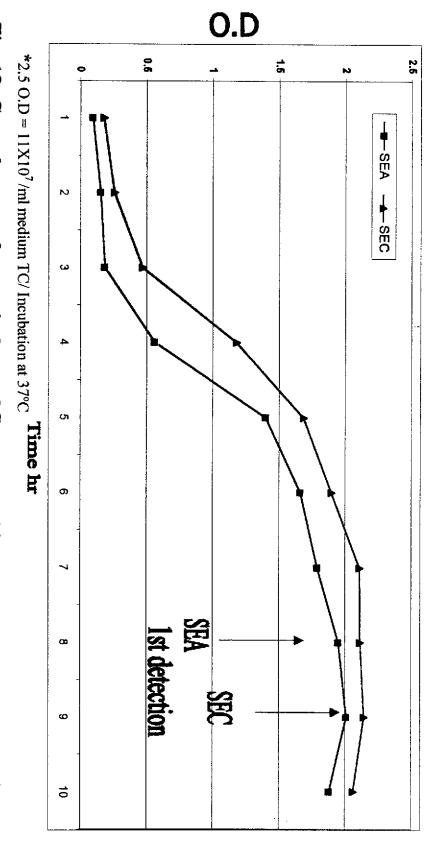


Fig. 18: Growth curves for two isolates of S. aureus, which produce SEA and SEC in (BHI)

detected after approximately 8 hours of incubation. On the other hand, the generation time for the SEC producing isolate was 30min. Enterotoxin C was first detected after 9 hours of incubation. In both isolates the concentration of the enterotoxin increased as the growth curve progresses.

3.3. 3 Growth curves of S. aureus in rice dishes

The growth curves of *S. aureus* in Mandy and Bokhary rice are shown in Fig.19 and 20 respectively. The organism grew in both kinds of rice at 45°C. The population of the examined *S. aureus* in Mandy rice increased from 1.3×10^6 to 1.4×10^{10} , whereas the population increased in Bokhary rice from 2.6×10^6 to 2.4×10^9 within 24 hrs. It could be noticed that the growth was definitely faster in Mandy rice than in Bokhary rice. The difference could be attributed to:

- 1. The pH of the Mandy rice dish was 5.5 while Bokhary rice was 4.7 due to the addition of tomato past and lemon juice, which is in agreement with Genigeorgis and Sadler (1966) who found that aerobic growth was prevented when the initial pH4.8 in the medium.
- 2. Spices content of Bokhary rice, cause inhibitory or interfering effect with the growth of *S. aureus* and other microorganism.

From the results it seems that SEA and SEC were produced at the beginning of the stationary phase. However, Otero et al., (1990)

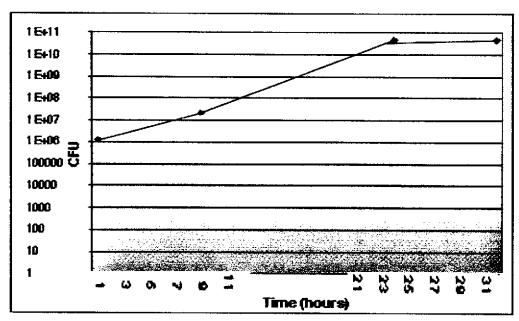


Fig.19: Growth curve for S.aureus in Mandy rice

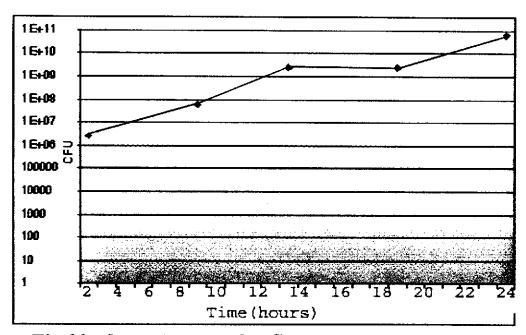


Fig.20: Growth curve for S.aureus in Bokhary rice

indicated that the enterotoxin C starts to appear at the late logarithmic phase in some strains while in the beginning of the stationary phase in other. Which is in agreement with our findings with SEC. However, the minimum incubation period and the the lowest population of *S. aureus* associated with detectable enterotoxin are dependent on the strain and was expressed as toxin yields after 24h. On the other hand, these results succeeded in demonstrating that enterotoxins are usually produced in detectable amounts after the count of staphylococci reaches a population of about 10⁶/g.

3.3. 4 Minimum detectable amounts of SEs in rice by RPLA

Several trials have been done by the addition of various amounts of the reconstituted enterotoxin (the supplied lyophilized enterotoxin vial contain 100ng/ml after the reconstitution with 0.5 ml diluent) to 10g of cooked rice. After the centrifugation and for maximum enterotoxin recovery the method ascribed in the kit's manufacture was followed. However, this procedure of Denka Seiken Co. did not work, so the method of Park and Szabo (1986) was used. The latter method was found very sensitive to detecting the enterotoxins in the Mandy and Bokhary rice. The main difference between both methods is the use of the refrigerator centrifuge, which accumulates the oil at the top of the tube. So, the supernatant will be free from the oil. 3ml syringe was used to withdraw the supernatant from underneath the oily layer.

Table (23): The minimum detectable SEs in rice by RPLA

| D | С | ₩. | A | Enterotoxin |
|-----|------------|----------|----------|---------------------------|
| +3 | ± 3 | ‡ | ಪ | 1/10 |
| +3 | +3 | +3 | +3 | 1/20 |
| +3 | +3 | ± | ±3 | 1/40 |
| + | + | +2 | +2 | 1/80 |
| + | + | + | + | Dilutions 1/90 1/ |
| +,- | +/- | +/- | +/- | 1/20 1/40 1/80 1/90 1/100 |
| 1 | | +/- | +/- | 1/120 |
| ı | | 1 | 1 | 1/140 |
| ı | 1 | 1 | | 1/200 |

In this study, an initial dilution of 1:10 was used followed by serial dilations, i.e., 20,30, 40, 80, 90, 100,120, 140, and 200. The agglutination reactions were positive with the homologous antibody coated latex until 1:100 for SEC and SED. However, for SEA and SEB the detection reached 1:120. The results are presented in Table 23. These were in agreement with the results that reported by Wieneke (1988), who found that strong agglutination reactions were still obtained with 1:100 dilutions.

Since enterotoxin C has three forms (Munson et al., 1998) a cross-reaction can occur between different forms of the enterotoxin C, which was not differentiated in the present investigation. Therefore, the findings are in agreement with those reported by Wieneke (1988) and earlier by Reiser et al., (1984). This means that RPLA kit is efficient in detecting six antigenically distinct enterotoxins SEA, SEB, SEC₁, SEC₂, SEC₃, and SED.

3.3. 5 The effect of rice temperature on staphylococcal enterotoxin production

3.3.5.1 Cooked rice

One isolates of *S. aureus* producing enterotoxin A and another one producing enterotoxin C (each isolates produce only one enterotoxin) were examined for their ability to grow and produce their toxins in Mandy and Bokhary rice dishes. The samples of rice were incubated for 3days. The enterotoxins were not detected throughout the incubation period. This could be attributed to the presence of contaminating microorganisms during

the handling of the rice and may have an effect on enterotoxin production during this extended period. Therefore, attempts were made to eliminate their effect by sterilizing the samples of cooked rice before inoculation.

EL-Nockrashy (1985) demonstrated that *S. aureus* inhibition might occur as a result of production of hydrogen peroxide by lactic acid bacteria. However, Genigeorgis *et al.*, (1971) reported the loss of viability of *S. aureus* in acidified media. The data presented show that enterotoxin cannot be present in foods when a non-enterotoxigenic *S. aureus* is greater than an enterotoxigenic strain.

3.3.5.2 Cooked then sterilized rice

For this experiment the rice samples were autoclaved at 121°C for 15 min. Then the prepared cell suspension of *S. aureus* was inoculated in the autoclaved rice. At first the inoculated rice samples were incubated for three days followed by testing for the presence of the enterotoxin. If the test was positive the experiment was repeated an incubation period of 48 hrs followed by experimenting for 24 hrs. Later, the incubation period was tested for presence of the enterotoxin every 6 hrs, and finally every one hour.

• Mandy rice

From the results presented in Fig. 21 it seems that SEA was detected after 16 hours in Mandy rice when the incubation temperature was 23°C, and was first detected after 6 hours when the incubation's temperature was 45°C. whereas the SEC was detected after 18 hours when the incubation temperature was 23°C, and after 6 hr at 45°C.

Bokhary rice

From the results presented in Fig.22 it seems that SEA was detected after 10 hours in Bokhary rice when the incubation temperature was 23°C, and was detected after 6 hours when the incubation temperature was 45°C. while the SEC was detected after 11 hours when the incubation's temperature was 23°C, and after 6hr when the incubation temperature was at 45°C.

In both cases no significant effect of pH changes in Bokhary and Mandy rice during incubation. And this seems logic because most people can't easily differentiate between wholesome food and that containing enterotoxin from *S. aureus*. Also from the results it appeared that the production of enterotoxin A was faster than that of enterotoxin C, which is in agreement with the results of Shinagawa *et al.*, (1982), who found that SEA was produced more rapid than SEB and SEC. On the other hand, the production of SEA and SEC was more rapid in Bokhary rice than in Mandy rice, which could be attributed to the method of cooking and preparing

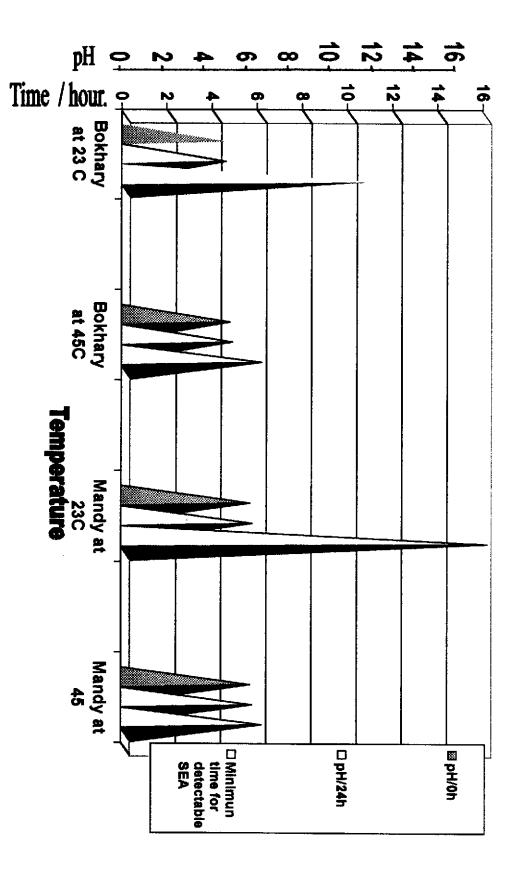


Fig.21: Effect of different temperatures on SEA production in Bokhary and Mandy Rice

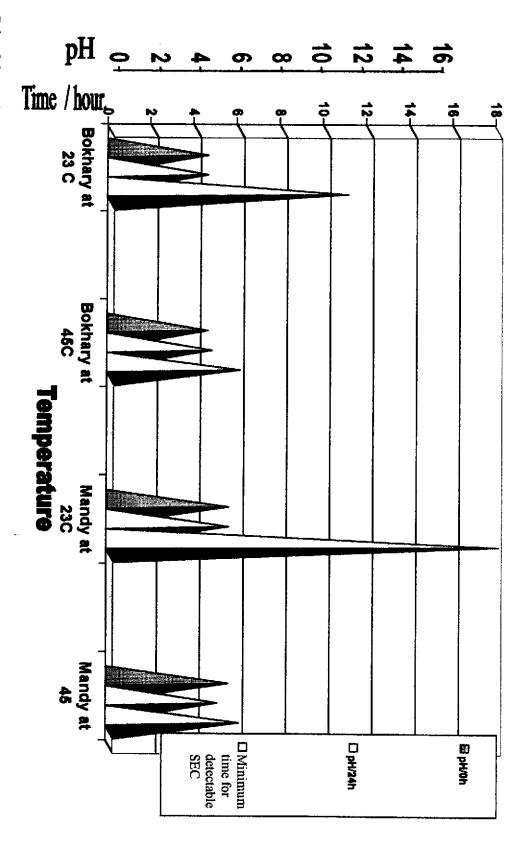


Fig.22: Effect of different temperatures on SEC production in Bokhary and Mandy Rice

Summary and Conclusion

Many inhabitants in Saudi Arabia nowadays depend on prepared cooked foods presented in many restaurants and pantries especially during Hajj and Omra seasons. In normal times, food handlers are subjected to medical examination before assignment to work in food stations. However, during high seasons of work, i.e., Haji those establishments employ temporary workers; mostly lacking training in food handling operations, and sanitary practices, which are not easily enforced during excessive demand than these establishments can afford. This situation can encourage contamination with microorganisms both causing food spoilage and food poisoning. Of most widespread intoxication, which depends largely on sanitary practices is Staphylococcal food poisoning.

The present investigation is concerned with isolation, purification, and identification of *Staphylococcus aureus* isolates from some food handlers whom applied to work in hospital-located kitchens in Makkah during high seasons of Hajj. The isolates were characterized and tested for their ability to produce enterotoxins in culture media, and in some Saudi traditional cooked foods such as Mandy and Bokhary rice, which are very famous, in most Saudi dishes, and served in public kitchens spreading everywhere.

Out of 129 Staphylococcus aureus isolates from 1516 clinical specimens obtained from food handlers of different nationalities in Makkah; 35% produced enterotoxins A, B, C, and D singly or in pairs, when such enterotoxins were evaluated by Reversed Passive

Latex Agglutination test (RPLA). Most of the isolates are resistant to Penicillin G. However, they were sensitive to Clindamycin, Oxacillin and Gentamicin when tested by the Kirby-Bauer method.

Enterotoxins C and A, elaborated by 15.5% and 12.4%, isolates respectively, showed the highest percentage obtained. They were mostly isolated from nasal swabs rather than throat swabs. So, two isolates each forming either SEA or SEC were chosen, and were subjected to further studies, i.e., grow cycle in selected medium and in cooked rice. The effect of the holding temperature of rice on the production of SEA and SEC was evaluated.

On the other hand, 24 rice samples were obtained from six different restaurants in Makkah. The samples were taken at noon when the restaurants begin to operate and ten hours later for two days. The results of the samples, which were taken at 12:00am, are relatively higher than at 10:00 pm in respect to TC. This means that the holding temperatures became more suitable for the contaminating bacteria to grow by time. However, the averages of pH of the rice samples were: 4.7 for Bokhary rice and 5.5 for Mandy rice. It seems from the results that the average pH of Bokhary rice was relatively lower than that of Mandy rice.

To determine the effect of rice holding temperature on staphylococcal enterotoxin production many test have been done and include: the minimum detectable amount of SEs in rice, which was less than one µg by RPLA kit. Also the growth curves of S. aureus in medium, and in rice were determined. Finally, SEA and SEC were produced in Bokhary rice within less than twelve hours

when the holding temperature was 23°C and within less than seven hours when the holding temperature was 45°C. On the other hand, for the Mandy rice SEA and SEC were produced within less than 18 hours when the holding temperature was 23°C and within less than six hours when the holding temperature was 45°C.

Therefore, the following conclusion could be drawn:

- 1. The total ratio of both Arabs and Asians carriers were nearly the same (8.7 and 8.9 respectively). This indicates that bad habits such as; picking nose (fingering the nose), nasal secretions and spiting on the ground could be the reason for increasing the ratio of staphylococcal intoxication.
- 2. The predominance of specific enterotoxin type among S. aureus isolates from human carriers is variable.
- 3. Most of enterotoxigenic S. aureus were isolated from the nose.
- 4. The sensitivity results indicated the susceptibility of one person to harbor or be infected with more than one strain of *S. aureus*.
- 5. From the results of the rice holding temperature and bacterial total counts, it appears that sanitary at the start of

distribution of meals was better than at late hours; taking into consideration that the meal components are wholesome from the beginning.

- 6. The components of rice dishes and method of cooking have an effect on the production of *S. aureus* toxin in the food, as SEA was detected after 10 hrs in Bokhary rice and after 16 hrs in Mandy rice when the temperature of holding was 23°C while, the enterotoxins were detected after hrs if the holding temperature was increased to 45°C in both dishes.
- 7. Generally, no significant effect of pH changes in Bokhary and Mandy rice dishes on the production of S. aureus enterotoxins. This may due to the tolerance of S. aureus to changes in pH values. Also, due to the characteristics of S. aureus enterotoxins, that make it always difficult to differentiate organoleptically between wholesome food and that containing enterotoxins from S. aureus.

However, it is very necessary to reactivate the role of the health certification, so it should cover the training and educational part beside the medical examinations.

References

References

1) Abe, J; Y. Ito; M. Onimaru; T. Kohsaka, and T. Takeda, (2000).

Characterization and distribution of a new enterotoxin- related superantigen produced by *Staphylococcus aureus*.

Microbiol. Immunol. : <u>44</u> (2) pp70-88

2) Adesiyun, A; I. Raji, and V. Yobe (1986)

Enterotoxigenicity of *Staphylococcus aureus* from anterior nares of dining hall workers.

J. Food Protect : 49 pp.955-957.

3) Akhtar, M; C. E. Park, and K.. Rayman (1996)

Effect of urea treatment on recovery of Staphylococcal enterotoxin A from heat-processed foods.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 62 (9) pp 3274-3276

4) Albert, M. J. (1994)

Mini review: Vibrio cholerae O139 Bengal.

J.Clin. Microbiol. : <u>32</u> (10) pp. 2345-2349

5) Al-Bustan, M.A; E.E.Udo, and T.D.Chugh, (1996).

Nasal carriage of enterotoxin producing S. aureus among restaurant workers in Kuwait City.

Epidemiol. Infect.(Eng): <u>116</u> (3) pp319-322.

6) Aldridge, K. E.; C. Kogos; C.V. Sanders, and R.L. Marier (1984)

Comparison of rapid identification assays for Staphylococcus aureus. (Notes)

J.Clin. Microbiol. : 19 (5) pp 703-704

7) Anandam, E. J (1971)

Reagent strips and conventional tests for acid production from mannitol and coagulase activity staphylococcus comparative study.

Applied Microbiol. : 21 (1) pp. 95-97

8) Avena, R.M, and M.S.Bergdoll (1967)

Purification and some physicochemical properties of enterotoxin C, *Staphylococcus aureus* strain 361. Biochemistry.: 6 pp1474-1480.

9) Ayres, J. C; O.J. Mundt, and W.E. Sandine (1980) "Microbiology of foods" Freeman and Company USA

10) Baker, J.S; M. A. Bormann, and Diane. H. Boudreau (1985) Evaluation of various rapid agglutination methods for the identification of *Staphylococcus aureus*.

J.Clin. Microbiol.: 21 (5) pp 726-729

11) Bautista, Lydia; P.Gaya; Margarita. Medina, and M. Nunez (1988)

A quantitative study of enterotoxin production by sheep milk Staphylococci.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : <u>54</u> (2) pp 566-569

- 12) Benenson, A.S, and J. Chin (Eds). (1995)
 "Control of communicable diseases manual "
 16th Ed APHA Washington, DC 20005
- 13) Benson, H.J (1994)
 "Microbiological Applications"
 6th ed WCB. Brown Publishers USA
- 14) Bergdoll, M.S; S Surgalla, and G.M. Dack. (1959)
 Staphylococcal enterotoxin: identification of a specific precipitating antibody with enterotoxin neutralizing property.

J. Immunol. : <u>83</u> pp334-338

- 15) Bergdoll, M.S; C.R. Borja, and R.M. Avena. (1965)Identification of a new enterotoxin as enterotoxin C.J. Bacteriol. : 90 (5) pp 1481-1484
- 16) Bergdoll, M.S; C. R. Borja; R.N. Robbins, and K. F. Weiss. (1971)
 Identification of enterotoxin E.
 Infect. Immun. : 4 pp 593-595
- 17) Bergdoll, M.S (1972)

 The enterotoxins.
 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY
- 18) Biberstein, E.L; S.S Jang, and D.C. Hirsh (1984)
 Species distribution of coagulase-positive
 Staphylococci in animals.
 J. Clin. Microbiol .19 (5) pp610-615
- 19) Bidawid, S.; J.M. Farber, and S. A. Sattar (2000)

 Contamination of foods by food handler: experiments on hepatitis A virus transfer to food and its interruption.

 Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 66 pp 2759-2763
- **20**) Blobel, H.; D.T.Berman, and Simon, J (1959) Purification of staphylococcal coagulase. J. Bacteriol. : 79 pp 807-815
- 21) Brandish, J.M, and A.T. Willis (1970)
 Observations on the coagulase and deoxyribonuclease tests for staphylococci.
 J.Med. Lab. Technol. : 27 pp 355-358.
- 22) Brunner, K.G, and A.C. Wong (1992)

 Staphylococcus aureus growth and enterotoxin production in mushrooms.

 J.Food. Sci.: 57 (3) pp 700-703

23) Bryan, F.L (1976)

Diseases transmitted by foods DHEW Publication No. (CDC) 76-8237

- 24) Carpenter, D.F, and G. J. Silverman (1976)

 Synthesis of staphylococcal enterotoxin A and nuclease under controlled fermentor conditions.

 Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 31 (2) pp 243-248
- 25) Casman, E. P (1959)

 Further serological studies of Staphylococcal enterotoxin.

J. Bacteriol. : <u>79</u> pp 809-856

26) Casman, E P (1960)

Further serological studies of staphylococcal enterotoxin.

J. Bacteriol. : 79 pp 849-856

- 27) Casman, E P., M. S. Bergdoll, and J. Robinson (1963)Designation of Staphylococcal enterotoxins.J. Bacteriol. : 85 pp 715-716
- 28) Casman, E. P, and R. W. Bennett (1963)

 Culture medium for the production of staphylococcal enterotoxin A.

 J. Bacteriol.: 86 pp 19-23
- 29) Casman, E. P. and R. W. Bennett (1965)

 Detection of Staphylococcal Enterotoxin in food.

 Appl. Microbiol. 13 (2) pp.181-189
- 30) Casman, E. P; R. W. Bennett; A. E. Dorsey, and J. A. Issa (1967)
 Identification of a fourth staphylococcal enterotoxin, enterotoxin D.
 J. Bacteriol.: 94 (6) pp 1875-1882

31) Casman, E. P; R. W. Bennett, A. E. Dorsey, and J.E, Stone (1969)

The micro-slide gel double diffusion test for the detection and assay of staphylococcal enterotoxins.

J. Health Lab. Sci.: 6 pp 185-196

32) Chapman, G.H. (1945a)

The significance of sodium chloride in studies of staphylococci.

J.Bacteriol. pp 201-203

33) Chapman, G. H (1945b)

Single culture medium for selective isolation of plasma-coagulating staphylococci and improved testing of chromogenesis, plasma coagulation, mannitol fermentation and the stone reaction.

J. Bacteriol. pp. 409-410 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

34) Cheesbrough, Monica (1985)

"Medical laboratory manual for tropical countries" Vol. II Butterworths London

35) Chesbro, W.R and K.Auborn (1967)

Enzymatic detection of the growth of *Staphylococcus* aureus in foods.

Appl. Microbiol. :15 pp. 1150-1159

36) Chesbro, W.D; Carpenter, D.F, and G. J. Silverman (1976) Heterogeneity of *Staphylococcus aureus* enterotoxin B as function of growth stage: implications for surveillance of foods.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 31 (4) pp581-589

37) Christensson, B; F. Espersen; S. Hedstrom, and G. Kronvall (1984)

Methodological Aspects of Staphylococcus aureus Peptidoglycan serology: comparisons between solidphase radioimmunoassay and enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay.

J. Clin. Microbiol. : 19 (5) pp 680-686

38) Collee, J.G; A.G.Fraser; B. P. Marmion, and A. Simmons (1996)

"Practical medical microbiology"
14th Ed Churchill Livingstone Inc, NY

39) Coons, A and M. Kaplan (1950)

Localization of antigen in tissue cells. I. Improvement in a method for the detection of antigen by means of fluorescent antibody.

J. Exp. Med.: 91 pp.1-13 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

40) Cruickshank, J.G (1990)

Food handlers and food poisoning. Bio. Med. J.: 300 pp 207-208.

41) Cunningham, L; B.Catlin and M. De Garilhe (1956)

A deoxyribonuclease of *Micrococcus pyogenes*I. Am. Chem. Soc. : 78 pp. 4642-4645

J. Am. Chem. Soc. : <u>78</u> pp. 4642-4645

42) Dack, G; E.Cary; O. Woolpert and J. Wiggins (1930)

An outbreak of food poisoning proved to be due to yellow hemolytic staphylococcus

J. Prev. Med.: <u>4</u> pp. 167-175 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

43) Degener, J. E; M. E. Heck; W. J. Leeuwen; C. Heemskerk; A.Crielaard; P. Joosten, and P. Caesar. (1994)

Nosocomial infection by *Staphylococcus haemolyticus* and typing methods for epidemiological study.

J.Clin. Microbiol.: 32 (9) pp 2260-2265

44) Denny, C.B; J. Y. Humber, and C. W. Bohrer (1971)

Effect of toxin concentration on the heat inactivation of staphylococcal enterotoxin A in beef bouillon and in phosphate buffer.

Appl. Microbiol. : <u>21</u> (6) pp 1064-1066

45) Devriese, L. A, and V. Hajek (1980)

Identification of pathogenic staphylococci isolated from animals and foods derived from animals (review).

J. Appl. Bacteriol. : 49 pp 1-11

46) Devriese, L. A. (1981)

Baird-Parker medium supplemented with acriflavine, polymyxins and sulphonamide for the selective isolation of *S. aureus* from heavily contaminated materials.

J. Appl. Bacteriol. : <u>50</u> pp 351-357

47) Doern, G. V. (1982)

Evaluation of a commercial latex agglutination test for identification of *Staphylococcus aureus*.

J. Clin. Microbiol.: 15 (3) pp 416-418

48) Dolman, C; J. Wilson and H. Cockroft (1936)

A new method of detecting staphylococcus enterotoxin.

Can. J. Public Health: <u>27</u> pp. 489-493 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

49) Duthie, E.S (1954)

The production of free staphylococcal coagulase.

J. Gen. Microbiol. : <u>10</u> pp 437-444. In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

50) El-Nockrashy, Soheir.A (1985)

Effect of lactic acid bacteria on growth of Staphylococcus aureus and production of enterotoxin type A and B.

Egypt.J. Food Sci. : 13 (1) pp 75-80

51) Emswiler -Rose, B. S; R. W. Johnston; M.E. Harris, and W.H.Lee (1980)

Rapid detection of staphylococcal thermonuclease on casings of naturally contaminated fermented sausages.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 40 (1) pp 13-18

52) Engels, W; M. Kamps, and C.P.A. Van Boven (1978)

Influence of cultivation conditions on the production of staphylocoagulase by *Staphylococcus aureus*.

J. Gen. Microbiol. : 109 pp 237-243

53) Erickson, A. and R.H.Deibel (1973)

Production and heat stability of staphylococcal nuclease.

Appl. Microbiol. : 25 pp 337-341.

54) Essers, L and K. Radebold (1980)

Rapid and reliable identification of *Staphylococcus* aureus by a latex agglutination test.

J. Clin. Microbiol. : 12 641-643

55) Ewald, S, and S. Notermans (1988)

Effect of water activity on growth and enterotoxin D production of *Staphylococcus aureus*.

International J. Food Microbiol.: 6 pp 25-30

56) Finegold, S.M, and E. E. Sweeney (1961)

New selective and differential medium for coagulasepositive staphylococci allowing rapid growth and strain differentiation.

J. Bacteriol. : <u>81</u> pp 636-641

57) Forsman, Paivi Anu Tilsala-Timisjarvi and T. alatossava (1997)

Identification of staphylococcal and streptococcal causes of bovine mastitis using 16S-23S rRNA spacer regions.

SGM p.3491-350

58) Frazier, W. C, and Westhoff, D.C (1984)
"Food microbiology"
3rd.ed, Tata McGraw PCL New Delhi

59) Freney, J; W.E. Kloos; V. Hajek and J. A. Webster (1999) Recommended minimal standards for description of new staphylococcal species. International J. Systematic Microbiol: 49 pp.489-502

60) Freed, R; M.L.Evenson; R.F.Reiser, and M. S. Bergdoll (1982)

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay for detection of staphylococcal enterotoxins in foods.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 44 (6) pp 349-1355

61) Gandhi, N. R, and G.H. Richardson (1971)
Capillary tube immunological assay for staphylococcal enterotoxins.
Appl. Microbiol.: 21 (4) pp 626-627

62) Gaya,p., Margarita Medina, Lydia Bautista and Manuel Nunez (1988)

Influence of lactic starter inoculation, curd heating and ripening temperature on *Staphylococcus aureus* behaviour in Manchego cheese
International J. Food Microbiology, 6 p 249-257

63) Garcia, M. L; B. Moreno, and M. S. Bergdoll (1980)
Characterization of staphylococci isolated from mastitic cow in Spain.
Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 39 pp 548-553

64) Genigeorgis, C, and W. W. Sadler (1966)
Effect of sodium chloride and pH on enterotoxin B production.
J. Bacteriol.: 92 (5) pp 1383-1387

65) Genigeorgis, C; M. Savoukidis, and Sue Niartin (1971a)
Initiation of staphylococcal growth in processed meat environments (notes).
Appl. Microbiol. :21 (5)pp 940- 942

66) Genigeorgis, C; M. S. Foda; A. Mantis, and W. W. Sadler (1971b)
Effect of sodium chloride and pH on enterotoxin C production.
Appl. Microbiol.: 21 (5) pp 862-866

67) Genigeorgis, C, and J. K. Kuo (1976)

Recovery of staphylococcal enterotoxin from foods by affinity chromatography

Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 31 (2) pp 274-279

68) Ghazoli, F.A (1994)

Assessment of the hygienic status and food quality in greater Jeddah popular restaurants.

M.Sc. Thesis. KAAU Jeddah KSA

69) Glenny, A and M. Stevens (1935)
Staphylococcus toxins and antitoxins.
J. Pathol. Bacteriol. : 40 pp. 201-210 In: J.O.Cohen,
"The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

70) Guardati, M.C; C. A. Guzman; G. Piatti, and C. Pruzzq (1993)

Rapid methods for identification of *Staphylococcus* aureus when both human and animal staphylococci are tested: comparison with a new immunoenzymatic assay

J. Clin. Microbiol. : <u>31</u> (6) pp 1606-1608

71) Hajek, V. (1978)

Identification of enterotoxigenic Staphylococci from sheep and sheep cheese.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : <u>35</u> (2) pp 264-268

- 72) Harley, J.P, and L.M.Prescott (1990)

 "Laboratory exercises in Microbiology"

 WCB Publishers USA
- 73) Harvey, J, and A.Gilmour (1985)

 Application of current methods for isolation and identification of staphylococci in raw bovine milk.

 J.Appl.Bacteriol. :59 pp207-221
- 74) Heritage, J. E; G.V.Evans, and R.A.Killington (1999)"Microbiology in action"University Press, Cambridge. UK
- 75) Hernandez, F.J; J.Goyache; J.A.Orden; J.L.Blanco, A.Domenech; G.Suarez, and E.Gomez-lucia (1993) Repair and enterotoxin synthesis by *Staphylococcus aureus* after thermal shock.

 Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 59 (5) pp 1515-1519
- 76) Hewedy, M.M; I.G.El-Naga; I.M.Ghazi, and M.Soliman (1990)
 Studies on staphylococci in milk and some dainy

Studies on staphylococci in milk and some dairy products II. Characteristics of yellow pigmented staphylococci and behaviour of typical pathogenic *Staphylococcus aureus*.(suppl)

Egypt.J.Food Sci. : 18 pp 29-44

77) Hewedy, M.M; I.G.El-Naga; I.M.Ghazi, and M.Soliman (1990)

Studies on staphylococci in milk and some dairy products I. Microbial load and susceptibility of buffaloes and cow to infection with mastitis Egypt.J.Food Sci.: 18 (1-3) pp 161-167

78) Hine, R Editor (1998)

"Illustrated Oxford Dictionary"
Dorling Kindersley oxford university press, London.

- 79) Hobbs, B and Roberts (1990)
 "Food poisoning and food hygiene"
 5th Ed Edward Arnold Great Britain
- 80) Holmberg, S and P. Blake (1984)
 Staphylococcal food poisoning in the United States.
 new facts and old misconceptions.
 JAMA.: 251 (4) pp. 487-489
- 81) Holt, J.G; N.Krieg; P.Sneath; J.Staley, and S.Williams (1994)

 "Bergey's manual of determinative bacteriology"

 9th Ed Williams&Wilkins Baltimore, Maryland USA
- **82)** Hoover, D.; G. Sita; R. Tatini, and J.B. Maltais (1983) Characterization of staphylococci. Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 46 (3) pp 649-660
- 83) Humphreys, H; C. Keane; R. Hone; H. Pomeroy; and R. Russell (1989)

 Enterotoxin production by Stanbulganeous surrous

Enterotoxin production by Staphylococcus aureus isolates from cases of septicaemia and from healthy carriers.

J.Med. Microbiol. : 28 (3) pp163-172

84) Iannelli,D; L. D'Apice; D.Fenizia L, Serpe; C. Cottone; M. Viscardi and R. Capparelli(1998). Vol. 36, No. 3 Simultaneous Identification of Antibodies to *Brucdlla abortus* and *Staphylococcus aureus* In Milk Samples by Flow Cytometry

J.Clin. Microbiol. 36 (3) pp. 802-806

85) Jaad, Y.B (1997)

The relationship of Hygiene evaluation with microbial quality of processed food.

M.Sc. Thesis . KAAU Jeddah KSA

86) Janda, W.M.; Kathy .Ristow, and D. Novak (1994)

Evaluation of RapIDEC staph for identification of Staphylococcus aureus, Staphylococcus epidermidis, and Staphylococcus saprophyuicus.

J.Clin. Microbiol. : <u>32</u> (9) pp 2056-2059

87) Jarvis, J and C. Wynne (1969)

A short survey of the reliability of deoxyribonuclease as an adjunct in the determination of staphylococcal pathogenicity.

J. Med. Lab, Technol. :26 pp. 131-133

88) Jawetz, E; J.Melnick; E.Adelberg; G.Brooks; J.Butel, and L. Ornston (1989)

"Medical microbiology"

18th Ed Prentice-hall international London.UK

89) Jensen, J and M. Hyde (1963)

Apocatalase of catalase negative staphylococci.

Science: 141 pp. 45-46

90) Johnson, H; H. Hall and M. simon (1967)

Enterotoxin B: serological assay in cultures by passive hemagglutination.

Appl. Microbiol. : <u>15</u> pp. 815-818

91) Jordan, E.O (1930)

The production by staphylococci of a substance causing food poisoning.

J. Am. Med. Assoc.: <u>94</u> pp. 1948-1650 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

92) Jordan, E. and J. Broom (1931)

Results of feeding staphylococcus filtrates to monkeys. Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med. : 29 pp. 161-162 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

93) Jungkind, D.L; Nancy. J. Torhan; Katherine. E. Corman, and J.M. Bondi (1984)

Comparison of two commercially available test methods with conventional coagulase tests for identification of *Staphylococcus aureus*.

J.Clin. Microbiol. : 19 (2) pp 191-193

94) Khambaty, F.M; W.Bennett, and D.B.Shah (1994)

Application of pulsed-field gel electrophoresis to the epidemiological characterization of *S. intermedius* implicated in a food-related outbreak Epidemiol. Infect.: 113 pp 75-81

Epideimoi. infect. : <u>115</u> pp 75-8;

95) Klapes, N.A., and D. Vesley (1986)

Rapid assay for in situ identification of coagulasepositive staphylococci recovered by membrane filtration from swimming pool water.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : <u>52</u> (3) pp 589-590

96) Koupal, A, and R. H. Deibel (1978)

Rapid qualitative method for detecting staphylococcal nuclease in foods.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 35 (6) pp 1193-1197

97) Kotzekidou, P.(1992)

A research Note: identification of staphylococci and micrococci isolated from an intermediate moisture meat product.

J. Food Sci. : <u>57</u> (1) pp 249-251

98) Koneman, E. W; S.D.Allen; W.M.Janda; P.C. Schreckenberger, and W.C.Winn (1997)

"Color atlas and textbook of diagnostic microbiology" 5th Ed, Lippincott-raven publishers. Philadelphia. NY.

99) Krakauer, Teresa (1999)

Immune response to staphylococcal superantigens. Immunologic Research: 20 (2) pp163-173

100) Lachica, R. V. (1976)

Simplified thermonuclease test for rapid identification of *Staphylococcus aureus* recovered on agar media.(Notes)

Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 32 (4) pp 633-634

101) Lachica, R.V (1980)

Accelerated procedure for the enumeration and identification of food-borne *Staphylococcus aureus*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: <u>39</u> (1) pp 17-19

102) Lachica, R.V (1984)

Egg yolk-free Baird-Parker medium for the accelerated enumeration of food borne *Staphylococcus aureus*. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : <u>48</u> (4) pp 870-871

103) Lachica, R. V; C. Genigeorgis, and P. D. Hoeprich (1971) Metachromatic agar-diffusion methods for detecting staphylococcal nuclease activity.

Appl. Microbiol.: 21 (4) pp 585-587

104) Laurell, C.B (1966)

Quantitative estimation of protein by electrophoresis in agarose gel containing antibodies.

Anal. Biochem. : 15 pp. 45-52

105) Lederberg, J (2000)

"Encyclopedia of Microbiology" 2nd Ed, Academic Press UK

106) Lim, D (1998)

" Microbiology"

2nd Ed McGraw-Hill USA

107) Loeb, L (1903)

The influence of certain bacteria on the coagulation of the blood.

J. Med. Res. :10 pp407-419 In: J. O. Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

108) Luijendijk, A; A.Belkum; H.Verbrugh, and J. Kluytmans (1996)

Comparison of five tests for identification of *S. aureus* from clinical samples.

J.Clin. Microbiol. : <u>34</u> (9) pp 2267-2269

109) Marin, Maria .E; Mana Decarmen. Rosa, and I. Cornejo (1992).

Enterotoxigenicity of staphylococcus strain isolated from Spanish dry-cured hams.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 58 (3) pp 1067-1069

110) Markus, Z and G. Silverman (1970)

Factors affecting the secretion of staphylococcal enterotoxin A.

Appl. Microbiol. :20 pp. 492-496

- 111) Martin, S.E.; R. S. Flowers, and Z. J.Ordal (1976) Catalase: its effect on microbial enumeration. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 32 (5) pp731-734
- 112) Masaudi, S.B; M.Day, and A.Russell. (1988)

 Sensitivity of methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus to some antibiotics, antiseptics and disinfectants.

 J. Appl. Bacteriol.: 66 pp 29-337
- 113) Mead, P.S; L.Slutsker; V.Dietz; L.F.McCaig; J.S.Bresee; C.Shapiro; P.M.Griffin, and R.V.Tauxe (1999)
 Food-related illness and death in the United States (synopses).
 Centers for disease control and prevention, Atlanta, USA
- Melconian, A; Y. Brun, and J. Fleurette (1983)
 Enterotoxin production, phage typing and serotyping of Staphylococcus aureus strains isolated from clinical materials and food.
 J. Hyg. Lond.: 91 (2) pp235-242
- 115) Meyer, R. F; L. Miller; R. W. Bennet, and J.D. Macmillan (1984)

 Development of a monoclonal antibody capable of interacting with five serotypes of *Staphylococcus aureus* enterotoxin.

 Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 47 (2) pp283-287
- 116) Meyer, R.F, and Michael .J.Palmieri (1980)

 Single radial immunodiffusion method for screening staphylococcal isolates for enterotoxin.

 Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 40 pp 1080-1085

117) Miller, Barbara.A; R. F. Reiser, and M. S. Bergdoll (1978)

Detection of staphylococcal enterotoxin A, B, C, D &E in foods by radioimmunoassay, using staphylococcal cells containing protein A as immunoadsorbent Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 36 (3) pp421-426

118) Mossel, D.A, and V. Netten, (1990)

Staphylococcus aureus and related staphylococci in foods: ecology, proliferation, toxinogenesis, control, and monitoring.

- J. Appl. Bacteriol. Symposium Supplement pp123S-145S
- 119) Motarjemi, Y and F. Kaferstein (1997) Global estimation of foodborne diseases. Wld. Hlth. Statist. Quart.: 50 pp. 5-11
- 120) Myrick, B.A, and P. D. Ellner (1982)
 Evaluation of the latex slide agglutination test for identification of Staphylococcus aureus.
 J. Clin. Microbiol.: 15 (2) pp 275-27
- 121) Munson, S.H; M. T.Tremain; M. J. Betey, and R. A. Welch (1998)

 Identification and characterization of staphylococcal enterotoxin types G and I from Staphylococcus aureus.

Infect. Immunol. pp 3337-3348

122) Niskanen, A and E.Nurmi (1976)

Effect of starter culture on staphylococcal enterotoxin and thermonuclease production in dry sausage.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 31 (1) pp.11-20

123) Niskanen, A and S. Lindroth (1976a)

Comparison of different purification procedures for extraction of staphylococcal enterotoxin A from foods.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 32 (4) pp 455-464

- 124) Niskanen, A, and S. Lindroth (1976b)
 Preparation of labeled staphylococcal enterotoxin A with high specific activity.
 Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 32 (6) pp 735-740
- 125) Niskanen, A, and M. Aalto (1978)

 Comparison of selective media for coagulase-positive enterotoxigenic *Staphylococcus aureus*.

 Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 35 (6) pp1233-1236
- 126) Noleto, A. L, and M. S. Bergdoll (1980) Staphylococcal enterotoxin production in the presence of non-enterotoxigenic staphylococci. Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 39 (6) pp 1167-1171
- 127) Noleto, A L; M.L Malburg, and M. S. Bergdoll (1987) Production of staphylococcal enterotoxin in mixed cultures. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 53 (10) pp 2271-2274
- 128) Noterman, S; K. J. Heuvelman, and K. Wernars (1988)
 Synthetic enterotoxin B DNA probes for detection of enterotoxigenic *Staphylococcus aureus* strains.
 Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 54 (2) pp531-533
- 129) Oakley, C and A. Fulthorpe (1953)
 Antigenic analysis by diffusion.
 J. Pathol. Bacteriol. : 65 pp. 49-60 In: J.O.Cohen,
 "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY
- 130) Ogston, A (1882)
 Micrococcus poisoning.
 J. Anat. (London), :17 pp. 24-58 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

131) Oliver, M. (1830)

On the poisonous effects of certain spoiled articles of food.

Lancet: 2 pp838-839. In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

132) Orth, D. S. (1977)

Statistical analysis and quality control in radioimmunoassay for staphylococcal enterotoxins A, B, and C.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 34 (6) pp 710-714

133) Otero, A.; M.L. Garcia; M.C.Garcia; B.Moreno, and M.S.Bergdoll (1990)
Production of staphylococcal enterotoxins C1 and C, and thermonuclease throughout the growth cycle.
Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 56 (2) pp555-559

134) Ouchterlony, O (1958)

Diffusion-in-gel methods for immunological analysis. Prog. Allergy: 5 pp. 1-77 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

135) Pan, T.M; T.K. Wang; C. Lee; S. Chien, and C. Horng (1997)

Food-borne disease outbreaks due to bacteria in Taiwan 1986 to 1995.

J. Clin. Microbiol. : <u>35</u> (5) pp1260-1262

136) Park, C.E, and R. Szabo. (1986).

Evaluation of the reversed passive latex agglutination (RPLA) test kits for detection of staphylococcal enterotoxins A, B, C, and D in foods.

Can. J. Microbiol. : <u>32</u> pp 723-727

137) Payne, D. N, and J. M. Wood (1974)

The incidence of enterotoxin production in strains of Staphylococcus aureus isolated from food.

J. Appl. Bacteriol. : 37 pp 319-325

138) Pelczar, M.J; R.Bard; G.Burneet; H.Conn; R.Demoss;
E.Evans; M.Jennison; A. Mckee; A. Riker; J.Warren;
O.Weeks, and F.Weiss. (1957)
"Manual of microbiological methods"
SABCBT McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc.

139) Pennell, D.R; J. A.Rott –Petri, and T. Kurzynski (1984)
Evaluation of three commercial agglutination tests for the identification of *Staphylococcus aureus*.
J. Clin. Microbiol.: 20 (4) pp 614-617

140) Prescott, L.M; J.P.Harley, and D. Klein (1990)"Microbiology"Wm.C.Brown Publishers USA

141) Peterkin, P. and A. N. Sharpe (1984)

Rapid enumeration of *Staphylococcus aureus* in foods by direct demonstration of enterotoxigenic colonies on membrane filters by enzyme immunoassay.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 47 (5) pp1047-1053

142) Rasooly, Linda N.; R. Rose; D. B. Shah, and A. Rasooly, (1997)
In vitro assay of Staphylococcus aureus enterotoxin A activity in food.
Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 63 (6) pp2361-2365

143) Raj. H, and J.Liston (1961)
Survival of bacteria of public health significance in frozen seafoods.
J.Food Technol. 10 pp429-434

144) Reali, D (1982)

Enterotoxin A and B production in strains of staphylococcus aureus isolated from human beings and foods.

J. Hyg. Lond.: <u>88</u> (1) pp103-106

145) Reiser, R.F; R. N. Robbins; A. L. Noleto; G.P. Khoe, and M.S. Bergdoll (1984)
Identification, purification, and some physicochemical properties of Staphylococcal enterotoxin C3.
Infect. Immun.: 45 pp 625-630.

146) Rhoden, D, and J.M.Miller, (1995)

Four-year prospective study of staph-ident system and conventional method for reference identification of Staphylococcus, Stomatococcus, and Micrococcus spp.

J. Clin. Microbiol. : 33 (1) pp 96-98

147) Roberson, J.R; L. K. Fox; D. D. Hancock, and T. E. Besser (1992)

Evaluation of methods for differentiation of coagulase-positive staphylococci.

J. Clin. Microbiol. : 30 (12) pp 3217-3219

148) Roder, B; N.Eriksen; L. Nielsen; T. Slotsbjerg; V. Rosdahl, and F. Espersen (1995)

No difference in enterotoxin production among Staphylococcus aureus strains isolated from blood compared with strains isolated from healthy carriers.

J.Med. Microbiol.: 42 pp.43-47

149) Rodriguez, M; F.Nunez; J.Cordoba; E.Bermudez, and M.Asensio (1996)
 Gram-positive, catalase-positive cocci from dry cured Iberia ham and their enterotoxigenic potential.
 Appl. Environ. Microbiol.: 62 (6) pp 1897-1902

150) Salah, Nahda S. (1977)" Arab world cookbook"International publications Agencies Dhahran, KSA

151) Saloman, L and R. Tew (1968)

Assay of staphylococcal enterotoxin B by latex agglutination.

Proc. Soc. Exp. Biol. Med. :129 pp. 539-542

- Shinagawa, K; N. Kunita; N. Matsuzaka; and G. Sakaguchi (1982)
 Experimental production of staphylococcal enterotoxins A, B, and C on rice flour gel medium.
 Japan. J. Med. Sci. Biol. : 35 (1) pp1-8
- Shingaki, M ;H. Igarashi; H. Fujikawa; H.Ushioda; T. Terayama; and S. Sakai (1981)
 Study on reversed passive latex agglutination for the detection of staphylococcal enterotoxins A, B, and C. Annu. Rep. ToKyo Metrop. Res. Lab. Public Health: 16 (1) pp.128-131
- 154) Silverman, G.J; J.T.R Nickerson; D.W. Duncan; N. S. Davis; J.S.Schachter, and M.M.Joselow (1961a) Microbial analysis of frozen raw and cooked shrimp general results.
 Food Technol. 15 (11) pp 455-458
- Silverman, G.J; J.Nickerson; D.W.Duncan; I. Tezcan; and M. Jahnson (1961b)
 Microbial analysis of frozen raw and cooked shrimp II certain characteristics of staphylococcus isolates
 Food Technol. 15 (11) pp 458-464
- 156) Silverman, G.J: A. R. Knott, and Mary. Howard (1968)
 Rapid sensitive assay for staphylococcal enterotoxin and a comparison of serological methods.
 Appl. Microbiol.: 16 (7) pp 1019-1023
- 157) Smith, J.E (1996)"Biotechnology"3rd Ed Cambridge University Press.UK

158) Soares, M.J.S; N. H. Tokumaru-Miyazaki; A.L.S.Noleto; and A.M Figueiredo (1997)

Enteretoria production by S. garrens alones and

Enterotoxin production by S. aureus clones and detection of Brazilian epidemic MRSA clone (III:B:A) among isolates from food handlers

J. Med. Microbiol. 46 pp 214-221

159) Stryer, L (1988)

"Biochemistry"

3rd Ed. Freeman and Company NY.

160) Su, Y, and A. C. Lee Wong (1995)

Identification and purification of a new staphylococcal enterotoxin, H.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : 61 (4) pp 1438-1443

161) Su, Y, and A. C. Lee Wong (1998)

Production of staphylococcal enterotoxin, H. under controlled pH and aeration.

International J. of Food Microbiol. : 39 pp87-91

162) Sugiyama, H.; M. S. Bergdoll, and G. NI. Dack (1960)

In vitro studies on staphylococcal enterotoxin production.

J. Bacteriol. : <u>80</u> pp 265-270

163) Sugai, M; T. Akiyama; H. Komatsuzawa; Y. Miyake, and H. Suginaka (1990)

Characterization of sodium dodecyl sulfate-stable *Staphylococcus aureus* bacteriolytic enzymes by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis.

J. Bacteriol. : 172 (11) pp 6494-6498

164) The Oxoid Manual. (1982)

" The Oxoid manual of culture media ingredients and other laboratory services"

5th Ed. Oxoid Limited. Hampshire. U.K.

R. Goering; G.Hancock; G.Hebert; Bertha.Hill; R. Hollis; W.Jarvis; B.Kreiswirth; W. Eisner; J.Maslow; Lada. Mcdougal; J.Miller; M.Mulligan, and Michael. A. Pfaller (1994)

Comparison of traditional and molecular methods of typing isolates of *Staphylococcus aureus*.

J. Clin. Microbiol. : <u>32</u> (2) pp 407-415

166) Troller, J. A (1971)

Effect of water activity on enterotoxin B production and growth of Staphylococcus aureus.

Appl. Microbiol. : 21 (3) pp 435-439

167) Tuncan, E. U and S. E.Martin (1990)

Combined effects of salts and temperature on the thermal destruction of *staphylococcus aureus* MF-31.

J. Food Sci. : <u>55</u> (3) pp 833-836

168) Udo,E; M.A.Al-Bustan; L.E.Jacob, and T.D.Chugh (1999)
Enterotoxin production by coagulase-negative staphylococci in restaurant workers from Kuwait City may be a potential cause of food poisoning.

J. Med. Microbiol.: 48 (9) pp 819-823

169) Wieneke, Antonnette. A (1988)

The detection of enterotoxin and toxic shock syndrome toxin-1 production by strains of *staphylococcus aureus* with commercial RPLA kits

International J. of Food Microbiol. : 7 pp25-30

170) Wieneke, Antonnette.A (1991)

Comparison of four kits for the detection of staphylococcal enterotoxin in foods from outbreaks of food poisoning

International J. of Food Microbiol. : 14 pp305-312

171) Wieneke, Antonnette.A; D.Roberts, and R.J Gilbert (1993)

Staphylococcal food poisoning in United Kingdom, 1969-1990

Epidemiol. Infect.: 110 pp 519-513

172) Wilson, B. (1959)

Comparative susceptibility of chimpanzees and *Mcaca mulatta* monkeys to oral administration of partially purified staphylococcal enterotoxin.

J. Bacteriol.: <u>78</u> pp240-242 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

173) Williams, R and G. Harper (1947)

Staphylococcal haemolysin on sheep blood agar with evidence for a fourth hemolysin.

J. Pathol. Bacteriol. : <u>59</u> pp. 69-97 In: J.O.Cohen, "The Staphylococci" John Wiley, NY

174) Wilson, I.G; J. E. Cooper, and A.Gilmour (1991)

Detection of enterotoxigenic *staphylococcus aureus* in skimmed milk: use of polymerase chain reaction for amplification and detection of staphylococcal Enterotoxin Genes entB and entC1 and thermonuclease gene nuc.

Appl. Environ. Microbiol. : <u>57</u> pp1793 -1798

175) W.H.O (1989)

Health Surveillance and Management Procedures for Food-handling Personnel: Technical Report Series No.785.

176) W.H.O (1996)

Food Safety Issues: Guidelines for Strengthening a national food safety programme. FNU/FOS/96.2.

177) W.H.O (1997a)

Food Safety Issues: Surveillance of Foodborne Diseases: What are The options? FSF/FOS/97.3

178) W.H.O (1997b)

World Health Statistics Quarterly: Food Safety and Food borne Diseases. 50 No.1/2,

179) W.H.O (2000a)

Food Safety and Food borne Illness Fact sheet N237: 1-5

180) W.H.O (2000b)

Press Release WHO/4 Who Responds to New Challenges in Food Safety 25 January 2000

181) Wood, A.C; J.S. Chadwick; R.S.Brehm; I. Todd; J. P. Arbuthnott, and H.S.Trenter (1997)

Identification of antigenic sites on staphylococcal enterotoxin B and toxoid.

FEMS. Immunol. Med. Microbiol. : 17 pp 1-10

يعتمد العديد من الناس على الأطعمة المعدة في المطاعم بمختلف أنواعها طول العام ،خاصة في موسم الحج حيث تكتظ المشاعر المقدس بما يقارب مليوني زائر. و نظرا لاختلاف جنسيات الحجاج واختلاف متطلباتهم من الأغذية، فأن المطاعم تقوم بالاستعانة بالعمالة الوافدة التي تخضع لكشف طبي عند بدء العل و مراقبة طبية خلال العام من قبل السلطات الصحية . أما في موسم الحج فيتم الاستعانة بالحيد من "العاملين المؤقتين" في هذا المجال والذين ينقصهم في معظم الأحيان التدريب الكافي والتثقيف الصحي وبالتالى يسهمون في زيادة تلوث الأطعمة بالميكروبات الممرضة. ومن أكثرها انتشارا <u>S. aureus</u> المسبب للتسمم الغذائي العنقودي . وقد تضمنت هذه الدراسة عزل وتنقية هذا الميكروب وذلك عن طريق أخذ مسحات مختلفة شملت ١٥١٦عينة طبية أخذت من ٤٢٨ عامل أغذية متقدمين للعمل في مطابخ بعض المستشفيات في مكة المكرمة وهم من جنسيات مختلفة تم تصنيفها إلى عمالة عربية و أسيوية. وبعد فحصها تم عزل ١٢٩ سلالة و قد اختبرت قدرة هذه العزلات لإفراز السموم المعوية في البيئات وذلك باستخدام طريقة (Reversed Passive Latex Agglutination test (RPLA) و قد أظهرت ٥٥ عزلة القدرة على إفرار السموم حيث بلغ عدد العزلات المفرزة للسم و ٢١ مو ١٥ عزلة على التوالي و A+Cو B و واحدة من كل نوع أما عدد العزلات المفرزة للسم B و A+Cفبلغت ٣ عزلات .وقد أظهرت النتائج أن أعداد الحاملين لهذا الميكروب٣٨ عامل. أيضا تم إجراء اختبار الحساسية لهذه العزلات لمعرفة مدى تشابه هذه العزلات وقد وزعت النتائج العزلات إلى سبع مجموعات حسب نتيجة اختبار الحساسية .أيضا تم اختبار عزلتين تفرز السمين الأكثر انتشارا بين العاملين وهما A و C في بعض الأكلات المطبوخة مثل الأرز المندي و البخاري. وذلك لدراسة تأثير درجة حرارة الحفظ عن طريق تحضين عينات من الأغذية عند درجات حرارة ٤٥°م و٣٣°م وتلقيح الغذاء المعقم بهذه البكتيريا. و في سبيل ذلك تم اختيار ستة مطاعم وأخذ عدة عينات وتم تقدير درجة الحرارة للأرز في تمام الساعة الثانية عشر ظهرا وبعد عشر ساعات بمعل عينتين. وأظهرت النتائج أن درجات حرارة الأرز في الظهر أعلى من المساء. كذلك تم عمل عد كلى لمعرفة مدى التلوث. وكانت نتائج جميع عينات المأخوذة ظهرا لا تحتوى على أي نموات عند استخدام بيئة nutrient agar ما عدا عينتين. أما عينات الفترة المسائية فقد احتوت خمسة عينات منها على نمو بكتيري. أيضا تم تقدير درجة الأس الهيدروجيني لجميع عينات الأرز. وكان المتوسط للرز البخاري ٤,٧ والمندي ٥,٥. كذلك تم تقدير اقل كمية من السموم التي يمكن الكشف عنها في الأرز وذلك باستخدام سموم مجفدة حيث أمكن الكشف على أقل من واحد ميكروجرام/جرام من الأرز. كذلك تم تتبع إنتاج السم من خلال دراسة منحنى النمو للعزلات المنتقاة. وبهذه الطريقة أمكن تحديد فترة التحضين الكافية لإنتاج السموم في هذه الأتواع من الأرز وتراوحت بين ٦ إلى ١٨ساعة. كذلك تم اقتراح بعض التوصيات. مثل تفعيل دور الشهادة الصحية لتشمل الكشف والتثقيف الصحى.

الباحث/أنس سراج دبلول المشرفون/أ.د.عصمت توفيق الأشوح عميد الكلية/د.عيسى محمد رواس